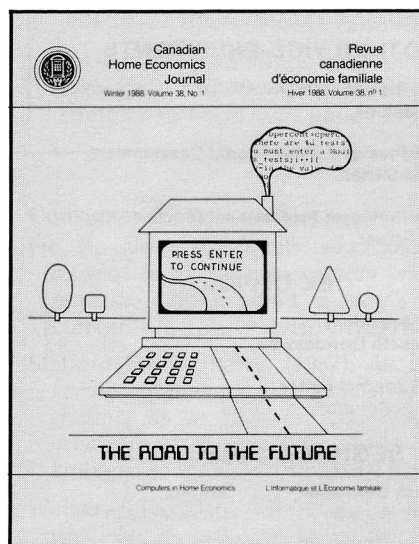


THE ROAD TO THE FUTURE



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from the Editors



It is with great pride and humility that a new Editorial Board presents Volume 38 of the Canadian Home Economics Journal. We are proud to be associated with a quality, international publication which advances the goals and ideals of the Home Economics Profession. The previous Editorial members led by Barbara Baczynsky, have set high standards that we endeavour to emulate.

The old adage, "if you want a job done, ask a busy person," rings true with the new Editorial Board members. Nancy Scrutton, the new Editor, is a Sessional Lecturer at the University of Windsor in the Dept. of Home Economics. She also does free lance consulting and has recently purchased a travel agency. The Associate Editor, Linda McKay, is an Associate Professor and Head of the Dept. of Home Economics, at the University of Windsor. Linda is a PhD. candidate at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan.

The New Development Section is written by Ann Scott, a Home Economics teacher and a Department Head for the Windsor Secondary School Board. Ann is an occasional Lecturer at the University of Windsor, and currently working on her MEd degree.

Nancy Trowbridge is the Book Review Editor. Nancy is graduate of the University of Toronto and is a former Home Economics Department Head for the Essex County Board of Education. She does free lance consulting and has a strong interest in crafts such as English Smocking.

Associate Professor Sue Goerzen teaches at the University of Windsor in the Home Economics Department. Sue will act as an Advisor to the Journal. She has published numerous papers and presented many workshops in Canada and in the United States.

The Editorial Committee is pleased that several members of the former Board have consented to continue their duties with the new Board. Dr. Phyllis Johnson will remain as the Research Editor for the Journal. Dr. Ruth Berry, a former Associate Editor, will be an Advisor to the current Board. Marie Barrette and Henriette Rochette-LeHir will contribute French Editorial advice.

In the Research Section, we are implementing a series of articles which will summarize and evaluate appropriate methods for surveying consumers, conducting program evaluations, and assessing policy outcomes. The first of the articles, *Telephone Survey Techniques*, is included in this issue.

The Theme Articles focus on computer use in Home Economics. Dana Stewart Mallin's article, *The Smart House Technology: Trend for the Future*, is an example of futuristic technology that exists in the 1980s. She aptly points out the dicotomy of having advanced technology available to the consumer when the trade people and financial institutions are hesitant to invest in a demonstration project.

Microcomputer usage in Nutrition Education is the topic of an article by Lynda Corby. This area of Home Economics has a profusion of software programs available both for educators and the public. One of the problems with such a large selection of material, is what criteria should be used to select the correct program for a specific use. Lynda discusses, among other things, nutrition computer programs used in a mall-type setting to help educate the public.

Sue MacGregor addresses the topic of the Electronic Fund Transfer System. This Debit Card System is in use in some Provinces and the idea is rapidly spreading across the country. Sue poses some thought-proving questions that the consumer should seriously consider before undertaking to apply for yet another piece of plastic money.

The 1987 Dr. Elizabeth Feniak Award for Excellence in Writing appears in this issue. Jean Ashdown's paper, *Residential Rehabilitation: The Homeowner's Decision* discusses the factors which encourage or discourage neighbourhoods from keeping their properties in a state of good repair.

Shirley Myers presents a summary of the American Home Economics Association's program for certifying Home Economists. This article provides information and ideas for those who are currently considering the Canadian equivalent, that is, registration of Home Economists.

Jill Oakes gives an overview of her travelling show, *"Inuit Annuraangit: Our Clothes"* in this issue of the Journal. A series of articles compiled by Jill, will deal with fashions of the Native Peoples of Canada.

Although fashion design is often seen as a glamorous profession, Rose Fedorak has conducted interviews with several prominent designers who dispute the glamorous aspects of the trade. Those wishing to pursue a career in fashions can gain some valuable insight into the real world of fashion design.

We urge the readers of the Journal to become involved by submitting ideas for themes, volunteering to do book reviews, and submitting articles. The comments from the 1987 readership survey have provided the themes for the coming year. We welcome your comments and would like to reinstate the Reader's Forum, through which readers can comment on ideas expressed in the articles.

Smart House Technology — Trend for the Future?

Dana Stewart Mallin

Abstract

Few true innovations in housing make their way through the vast array of amenities competing for the home buyers attention. The Smart House concept may well break new ground in housing design, by establishing a new standard wiring interconnection method and data communications protocol. The system provides integrated control and communication between various home appliances and equipment. The possible uses of the system for gas or electrically equipped new homes appear limitless. In addition to providing a safe, monitored, controlled home environment, the Smart House can be fitted with many options designed for special needs populations. Optimistic supporters of the concept hope to have demonstration homes in place by 1988.

Résumé

Parmi le vaste éventail de commodités offertes pour séduire l'acheteur de maison, on retrouve peu de véritables innovations. Le concept de la "Maison Intelligente" représente peut-être une étape d'importance dans la conception domiciliaire avec sa nouvelle norme de méthode d'interconnexion de fils et de protocole de communications de données. Le système offre commande intégrée et communication entre les divers appareils ménagers et l'équipement de la maison. Les usages possibles de ce système dans les maisons modernes alimentées au gaz ou à l'électricité semblent illimités. En plus de présenter un environnement sûr et contrôlé, la Maison Intelligente peut s'adapter à de nombreuses options conçues pour répondre à des besoins spéciaux. Les partisans de ce concept espèrent voir ces maisons en démonstration dès 1988.



Little change has occurred in the design of homes in this century. Post-war suburbia saw the introduction of the "helpless" house and a plan which extended its shelter to the automobile. The 1960s ushered in the bi-level plan and built-in appliances. Each year a variety of home shows entice consumers with the latest in gimmicks and gadgets. Decks and sunrooms, jacuzzis and skylights are proffered as the latest innovations in the industry. There is, however, a truly new concept being demonstrated today that has the potential to change housing of the future, the "Smart House".

Dana Stewart Mallin, BID, MCP. (University of Manitoba) is currently Assistant Professor of Housing and Design, Department of Family Studies, at the University of Manitoba; Past Chair of the Canadian Housing Design Council; and Past Chair of the International Innovative Housing and Components Exposition/Conference 1986.
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What is the Smart House?

At the moment, the Smart House is not a specific home design package but a research project demonstrating a new concept. The basis of the Smart House concept is a new wiring system that provides integrated control and communication between various home appliances and equipment. First demonstrated in the United States at the 1986 National Association of Home Builders' Annual Convention/Exposition in Dallas and later at the International Innovation Housing and Components exposition '86 in Toronto, the Smart House exhibit consists of two 48 foot vans showing the basic technology in two mock homes, one gas, and the other, electrically equipped.

The goal of the Smart House technology is to make homes easier, more convenient, safer to live in, simpler to manage, and less costly to maintain. The initiators of the project, the National Association of Home Builders Research Foundation

(N.A.H.B./R.F.) who act as coordinators and administrators of the venture seek "to provide information on the Smart House concept, ensure its acceptance by code and regulatory bodies, promote its use by manufacturers, home builders and buyers, and to instruct contractors in the installation and operation of Smart House wiring and products". (Smart House Development Venture, Inc., 1986).

The heart of the Smart House concept is an integrated wiring system for use with compatible appliances (gas or electric) linked to a localized communications network. Integrated wiring combines one wire for power, a twisted pair for communications (one for digital and one for analog), and a coaxial cable for audio-visual signals into one bundle. The idea of using a single cable for wiring is not a new idea in the commercial field. Proposals for "Smart Buildings" (Architectural Technology, 1986.) and "Smart Cities" proposed by the Japanese are capturing the attention of engineers, architects, planners, media, and the public. At present, however, there are no totally integrated buildings, let alone cities, in existence. The Smart House project hopes to put home demonstration projects into place by 1988.

The Smart House system has many features that have the building industry and the home buying public intrigued. A number of attributes of the system include:

- **compatibility among components:** A consortium of American and Canadian firms are pooling their research efforts to develop, market, and produce compatible products and technology.
- **reduction of shock and fire hazards:** Continuous monitoring of electric devices and circuits through a "closed-loop" system ensures that only the amount of power needed to run a device is sent through the system. Should a child put a finger into a receptor, for example, no power is sent; on the other hand, should a malfunction in a circuit occur, the system shuts down.
- **simplified electromechanical appliances:** Using "programmed power" the system can use less costly appliances requiring less maintenance. The decentralized control system adjusts for devices using any electrical power requirement, eg. 120 volts a.c. at 5 amperes, or 50 volts d.c.

at 3 amperes, operating at a variety of speeds, and timed for various cycles. Appliances designed for the Smart House technology will require less costly internal components because many of their functions are handled by the controllers in the system itself.

- **expanded communications, automation, home security, and personal health applications:** Not only can appliances and devices interact through the "distributed intelligence system", they can sense signals detecting odours, smoke, heat, sound, light, motion, and recognized spoken requests.
- **less costly metering of natural gas, electric power, and water utilities:** The Smart House controller can keep track of utility usage and provide the information to the user as well as to the utility companies thereby eliminating costly meter reading. "Intelligent control" allows the user to benefit from a variety of energy rates and options.
- **backup system in the event of power failure:** The Smart House power system can supply essential devices from a stored power source and selectively restore power to life support operations first, then the remaining functions.
- **increased potential for future developments:** New technology and devices incorporating greater flexibility in design and performance are possible because the new system is free of antiquated wiring and gas delivery methods.

Features of the Smart House system

There is no doubt that the Smart House will have great consumer appeal. In a nation mesmerized by gadgets, the Smart House concept will have advertising and marketing firms in their glory. Beyond the ability of the system to monitor and control home environment conditions, it can also act in a "user friendly" manner capable of being taught new functions and responding to the personal preferences and idiosyncracies of the owner. Specific light, heat, and cooling levels; sound levels of favourite radio stations; timed opening and closing of draperies, for example, can be custom selected for each individual or family. The system can be accessed remotely by telephone in advance of the owner returning home and can be pro-

grammed to *act alive* while the owner is out or on vacation.

Perhaps the most beneficial feature of the Smart House system derives from its ability to accommodate special functions for the elderly, young, or disabled. It can monitor house functions for the deaf or blind, incorporate braille-encoded control panels and other assistance devices, and lock-out appliances or entertainment channels for unauthorized persons. Voice recognition and voice synthesis options can be used for emergency assistance for someone not able to reach a telephone or control panel.

The cost of the Smart House system

Like any new technological development, the Smart House system will cost a premium when first available. N.A.H.B./R.F. estimates the wiring systems and controllers would cost approximately 30% more than conventional wiring. Options such as voice recognition and synthesis, or special needs adaptors, would increase costs. However, a person moving into a home outfitted with the system need not buy all new Smart House appliances. Adaptors will be available and new appliances or options can be added as needed.

The spin-off effects of the Smart House system should actually reduce costs to users. David J. MacFadyen, the N.A.H.B. Research Foundation president says "Smart House builders will be building a different and better product. Home buyers may qualify for higher lending ratios because of reduced operating and insurance costs, in addition to their greater energy efficiency ... builders will be able to offer more appliance options, such as security systems, washers and dryers, telephones, and even entertainment components." (Fennel, J., 1986). Simpler appliances with less maintenance costs should save the users directly, while easier, less costly monitoring of utilities should save everyone.

But will it really fly?

The technology is in place, the demonstration units have been shown coast to coast in North America, the building industry is actively promoting the concept, but, "there appears to be no completely integrated Smart House commercially available by builders in the United States or Canada

at the moment "according to Ruben Diamond, president of Flair Homes Winnipeg. (R. Diamond, personal communication, September, 1987). Diamond, like many other home builders, is intrigued by the concept but adopts a wait and see attitude.

The biggest resistance to the concept comes from the business community. Large volume appliance manufacturers are concerned about extensive research and development costs. Many are waiting for market studies trying to gauge the strength of consumer acceptance and anticipate price points.

Committicant with innovation inherent in the Smart House technology is the innovation necessary to change rules, regulations, and codes for the venture. At the outset, changes were necessary to the National Energy Code in order to permit home use of

the integrated wiring system. In October 1984 the U.S. National Cooperative Research Act was passed to eliminate possible anti-trust barriers allowing cooperation in R & D efforts for the Smart House. The consortium first formed under the 1984 legislation led to a limited partnership, Smart House Development Venture, "to sign products licensing agreements obligating them to develop specific products on a stated schedule. Each company funds its own development costs and must pay royalties back to the limited Partnership." (Haas Smith, 1986). Despite the appeal of the concept, businesses are moving slowly and cautiously toward the 1988 demonstration goals of the N.A.H.B./R.F.

The potential of the Smart House concept is immense. Plans by the N.A.H.B./R.F. to have Smart House

products commercially available by late 1988 will depend on the acceptance of the technology by manufacturers, builders, and consumers in an industry resistant to change. The effects of the concept could bring about one of the first major changes in home design in this century and bring the house as a product into the computer age. □

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Microcomputers: How Can Nutrition Educators Use Them More Effectively

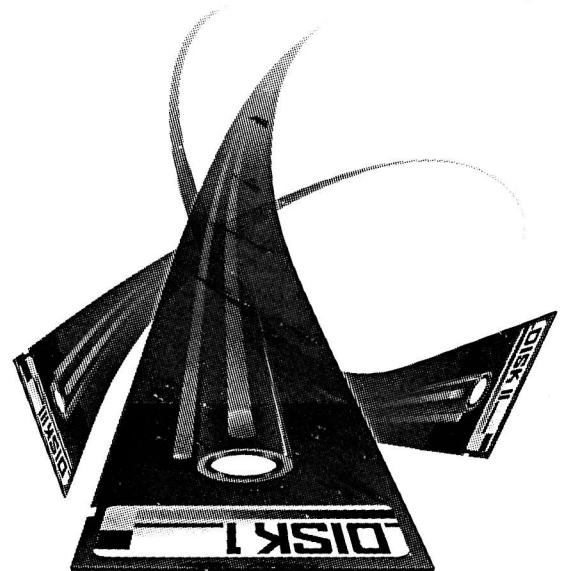
Lynda Corby

Abstract

Interest is high for capitalizing on the novelty of computer technology and applying it to nutrition education. Critical evaluation of the match between educational objectives and the most effective teaching strategy may support the use of computers. Research indicates that this technology is best suited to achieving changes in knowledge or where efficiency in instructional or learning time is important. There is little data to substantiate the effectiveness of microcomputers as tools for attitudinal or behavioral change. However, their ability to provide prompt interactive feedback, the capacity to simulate complex situations, to provide for learner-pacing, and student privacy indicate potential. Continuing education seminars for nutrition educators should include training on understanding the capabilities of microcomputers and how to assess and select appropriate software.

Résumé

On s'intéresse vivement à profiter de la nouveauté de la technologie informatique pour l'appliquer à l'enseignement de la nutrition. Une évaluation critique de la correspondance entre les objectifs éducationnels et une pédagogie efficace pourrait appuyer l'utilisation des ordinateurs. Les recherches montrent que cette technologie convient surtout à réaliser des changements dans le domaine des connaissances ou dans les cas où l'efficacité durant le temps d'enseignement ou d'apprentissage est importante. Il existe peu de données pour établir l'efficacité des micro-ordinateurs comme moyen de changer les attitudes ou le comportement. Toutefois, leur capacité de fournir une réponse rapide, leur capacité de simuler des situations complexes, de permettre un apprentissage seul, à son propre rythme montre leur potentiel. Les ateliers en éducation permanente pour les éducateurs en nutrition devraient les former à comprendre les possibilités des micro-ordinateurs et à évaluer et choisir un logiciel approprié.



It has been projected that by 1990, eighty percent of homes will have microcomputers (Chen, 1983). They will be integrated into our lives much like present day television and telephones. For educators, including those disseminating nutrition information, this ready-accessibility to microcomputers in the home as well as schools and other community settings, provides an additional medium to explore as a teaching and learning tool (McMurray and Hoover, 1984). Unfortunately the major reason that many educators may wish to use microcomputers is for their novelty and a desire to "keep up with the times" (Salisbury, 1984). If teaching strategies are chosen in this way without regard to educational gaps that exist in knowledge, understanding, values, attitudes, skills or behaviors, they generally fail to make a difference in the quality of a program, nor will they produce data that can be used to substantiate the achievement of objectives. Identification of educational needs and objectives followed by an assessment of the appropriateness of microcomputers as tools to meet those needs, are clearly the first steps in planning for more effective use of this technology.

Matching Educational Objectives with Effective Teaching Strategies

There are many references to help educators select appropriate teaching strategies. Some of these are games,

discussion, case studies, role plays, brainstorming, for given educational objectives (McLagan, 1978; Mitchell and Corby, 1984; Renner, 1983) for an endless variety of subjects and situations. However, studies on the effectiveness of the microcomputer as an educational tool have been limited primarily to the school setting and have been applied to the subjects of science, language arts, mathematics,

and history (Chen and Cornett, 1983). These studies have demonstrated a gain in knowledge, but no greater than that attained from traditional instruction methods. Only equivocal results have been produced by studies to determine if more positive attitudes toward learning are evident with computer assisted instruction (CAI) compared to conventional lecture methods (Schroeder and Thiele, 1981; Slesnick, 1983).

CAI is of benefit, however, in saving time for learning and in decreasing professional time input (Chen et al, 1983; Dence, 1980; Hills, 1983; Schroeder and Thiele, 1981). A survey* conducted in government, commun-

Lynda Corby MS, RD, is a consulting nutritionist. She lives and works in Winnipeg, Manitoba.

*Funding for this survey and the subsequent development of the report *The Microcomputer as a Nutrition Education Tool* was provided by a grant from The Canadian Home Economics Foundation to Professor M. Campbell, MSc and Dr. G. Sevenhuysen, PhD, Dept. of Foods and Nutrition, Faculty of Human Ecology, University of Manitoba. Copies of the report may be obtained for \$5.00 each from The Canadian Home Economics Foundation, 3807 Vialous Drive, Winnipeg, MN R3R 0A4.

ity, and educational institutions in Canada, revealed that the most common application of microcomputer technology by nutrition educators, was as a time-saver in that it was used to analyze client food records in prenatal classes or in other group and individual counselling settings. The capacity of the microcomputer to perform rapid calculations and print out nutrient intakes based on dietary data, frees the educator to devote more time to teaching clients how to make modifications in their diets.

Users of nutrient analysis programs report that the public appears to place a high degree of credibility in a computer-generated print-out (Stephenson, 1984; Thompson, 1984). Youth audiences also demonstrate high interest in improving health-related behaviors when data print-outs are used as an educational tool (Gold and Duncan, 1980a; Osness and Marsh, 1983; Moody and Rienzo, 1981) particularly when trained individuals are available to provide the correct interpretation of the output.

Retention of information over an extended period of time has been greater with CAI (Dence, 1980). Furthermore, the microcomputer is of value when learners need more individualized instruction than what might be available in a group teaching situation where needs, comprehension, and abilities vary widely.

Since the ultimate outcome of nutrition education programs is to have participants adopt healthful food selection and preparation practices, those teaching techniques which promote behavior change, are of interest to nutrition educators. Can microcomputer technology play a role in motivating appropriate behavioral changes or lifestyle modifications and their maintenance (Weinberg and Scott, 1983)? In spite of the data to substantiate the effectiveness of microcomputers in education, there is limited evaluation on the application of CAI in changing behaviors related to health practices (Chen et al, 1983), nor is the application outside the school classroom within a community education context widely evaluated. However, there are several characteristics or capabilities of CAI that may indicate its potential relevance to changing nutrition related behaviors (Gold and Duncan, 1980b) for the general public and/or specific target groups.

One such characteristic that may not be fully utilized by present applications is the interactive capacity of microcomputers. Well-designed interactive computer programs, which allow users to input their own dietary data and receive an assessment, may be an effective way to promote change in eating habits. Because food habits are viewed by many people as very personal information, it may be difficult, even for a skilled interviewer, to obtain reliable data that reflects the food intake of the client. Researchers have documented a preference by the public in recording personal information via the microcomputer, citing advantages such as its individual dialogue, self-pacing capacity, as well as the privacy it affords (Bosworth, Gustaffson, Hawkins, Chewing, day, 1983; Fisher, Johnson, Porter, Bleich, Slack, 1977; Miller, 1976; VanCura, Jensen, Norman, Greist, Lewis, Frey,

"Users of nutrient analysis programs report that the public appears to place a high degree of credibility in a computer-generated print-out."

1975). Ellis and Raines (1981) have also demonstrated that CAI on health-related material is acceptable to the noncomputer-oriented general public. Consequently, even in settings where there is no access to trained health professionals to interview, assess, and counsel a client, a well-designed interactive computer program may afford a solution (Cook, 1982). Obviously such a system is not without limitations due to potential errors in entering data and interpreting the output, but it may be an acceptable alternative to no teaching or inaccurate information provided by untrained personnel.

Many hospitals, clinics, and home teaching programs, which currently rely on slide and tape formats or closed-circuit television, may be made more effective when material is presented via the microcomputer due to its self-pacing, interactive capacity. Personal computers in the home can

also provide access to health education material unique to an individual or family situation (Wilson, 1981), at a teachable moment (Gold et al, 1980b) and at a time convenient to the learner.

Whereas youth groups are often considered as the primary focus for teaching with the microcomputer, the elderly and the mentally handicapped should also be considered as potential target groups for this form of instruction. They too, can benefit from the individualized, self-pacing format, immediate feedback, reinforcement, and correction.

Microcomputers readily lend themselves to teaching problem-solving skills (Slesnick, 1983). By simulating a situation and providing prompt feedback to the learner on their actions, individuals are free to take risks and experiment with decisions. Studies show that simulations generally lead to intense involvement with the subject matter in a way other teaching techniques do not. They act as motivators, generating enthusiasm for content and learning in general (Dow, 1981). One must weigh whatever the developmental costs in time, effort, and money to produce microcomputer oriented simulations are worthwhile compared to traditional case studies and role playing methods.

Games are an extension of simulations that appeal to a wide range of age groups, whether played via a microcomputer or not. Game-like educational formats can be used to stimulate interest, to evaluate the application of knowledge, to gain information, to analyze situations, and to make judgements, depending on how the games are structured (Spitze, 1969). As yet, limited nutrition games have been developed for the microcomputer. Those that have been developed have been used primarily to attract attention and increase awareness of nutrition at fairs, mall displays, and other high-traffic situations (Belisle, 1984; Dibblee, 1984; O'Hayden, Altossar, Nantel, Armstrong, 1980; Rankine, 1984; Slavin, Darling, Mattson, 1984; Tenold, 1984). Experience in the United States confirms that this is an effective way to increase public awareness of nutrition, particularly when the games incorporate color graphics, sound effects, music, and prompt feedback (Maruyama and Forester, 1984). When used in a mall display, nutritionists should be available to discuss the game, as these programs tend to generate more questions than they

answer (Slavin, Darling and Mattson, 1984). As a component to a larger educational program they can also add a novel and fun approach to learning.

In selecting the microcomputer over other traditional teaching methods that may achieve similar objectives, factors such as preference in learning styles of participants, group size, facilities for instruction, and skill of the educator in using the technique are important considerations (Mitchell and Corby, 1984).

Selecting Appropriate Software

A further essential step in the planning process for effective use of microcomputers is the evaluation and selection of software. Several authors have developed criteria for this purpose (Byrd-Bredbenner and Pelican, 1984; Caldwell, 1982; Fetter, 1983; Northy & Brendzy, 1983). Considerations for critiquing a program include the compatibility between the educational objectives identified by the educator and those of the computer program, the "user friendliness" or ease of use of the computer program, the supporting documentation which accompanies the program, and whether the capabilities of the microcomputer are used to their best advantage. This latter consideration seems to be overlooked in many nutrition education programs currently available and in their written evaluations (Byrd-Bredbenner and Pelican, ed., 1984; Lowe, 1984). Microcomputers can produce very sophisticated quizzes and drill and practice routines which keep track of correct and wrong responses (Salisbury, 1984). However, programs that consist of simple multiple choice or "flashcard" strategies soon become uninteresting. Tutorial programs also seem inappropriate (Slesnick, 1983). Long passages of text about various concepts is hardly the most motivating use of the computer. Software programs that *show* rather than *tell* make more effective use of the medium (Caldwell, 1982). Use of graphics, color, sound, and flashing add to the stimulus for learning.

Conclusion

Obviously a single medium for teaching is not a panacea. The microcomputer will not provide the answer to meet all educational objectives (Duryea, 1983). Just as there are circumstances where a person learns best alone, there are situations where learning is enhanced by small group or large group activities (Aitken and

Braun, 1980). Current research does indicate that microcomputers are effective for achieving objectives related to knowledge development and retention. They are also a useful tool, if not an indispensable means, for nutritionists dealing with diet analysis due to the time management factor. Further evaluation may substantiate their application to effecting attitude and behavior change.

Continuing education events for nutrition educators should include training on understanding the capabilities of microcomputers and how to assess and select appropriate software. This will enable educators to put this technology to its best use and retain those traditional methods of instruction for situations where they are most effective. □

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Debit Cards, They're In Your Future

Sue McGregor

Abstract

Debit cards are the most recent facet of the Canadian electronic payment system. Although they seem to be ahead of their time, they are a reality. This paper explains the concept of a debit card, outlines the benefits to financial institutions, retailers and consumers. Emphasis is placed on the potential drawbacks to the Canadian consumer and on the necessity for joint cooperation of consumers, government, business, and financial institutions in the development, regulation and implementation of this new form of plastic money.

Résumé

L'aspect le plus récent du système de paiement électronique est la carte de débit. Bien qu'elle semble d'avantgarde, elle est déjà une réalité. Cet article explique le concept de la carte de débit, décrit les avantages pour les institutions financières, les détaillants, et les consommateurs. L'accent est mis sur les inconvénients potentiels pour le consommateur canadien et sur la nécessité d'une coopération conjointe entre les consommateurs, le gouvernement, le monde des affaires, et les institutions financières pour développer, réglementer et mettre en service cette méthode de paiement.

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Background

The Electronic Fund Transfer System (EFTS) is a system designed to computerize and automate the flow of money in the Canadian marketplace (McGregor, 1986a). There are several facets of the EFTS, ranging from preauthorized payments and cheque deposits to automated teller machines (ATM). The latter enables the consumer to deposit, withdraw, and transfer funds among personal accounts using a banking card and personal identification number (PIN) to access the machine.

Some believe that consumers' use of ATM has paved the way to acceptance of debit cards (Baran & Tarrant, 1984; Stroud, 1985). Financial institutions (banks, credit unions, trust companies, and insurance companies) also gradually have been weaning the consumer away from the paper system to the EFTS. They sometimes no longer return cheques and/or bank statements (Baran & Tarrant, 1984); charge more per cheque; or increase the costs of credit by charging a user fee for each credit card transaction (Baran & Tarrant, 1984; Electronic Banking, 1982; Hewston, 1985). It even is suggested that banks may offer debit cards with overdraft protection (Hewston, 1985). Retailers also may lower consumer resistance to debit cards by offering discounts if consumers use debit cards instead of cash (Baran & Tarrant, 1984). Imperial Oil Canada is already trying this in three Canadian cities using a debit card called Esso Autocheque (Pickfield, 1985b; Roberts, 1985).

Debit Card — Defined

Debit cards are the latest form of plastic money. They resemble a credit card or bank card (ATM card) in that

they have a magnetically coded strip on which the consumers' PIN is encoded. Consumers use an ATM card in an automated teller machine to deposit, withdraw and transfer funds among personal accounts. Along the same concept, the consumer will access a point of sale (POS) terminal with a debit card to transfer money from a chequing account to the retailers account (Baran & Tarrant, 1984).

Debit cards are in essence "electronic cheques". Consumers shop at the grocery store, gas station, restaurant or retail store and select a choice of items. When ready to pay, they will proceed to the check out line. At the check out line, there will be a POS terminal. The consumer slips the debit card through a magnetic slip reader attached to the POS terminal. The consumer will punch in the PIN on a key pad. If sufficient funds are available in the account, the total amount owing is *immediately* deducted (debited) from the consumers chequing account and credited (deposited) into the merchants' account at their bank (Baran & Tarrant, 1984). The use of a debit card by a consumer authorizes *immediate* payment for the goods or service. You have paid cash for your purchase but no paper money has actually been handled (Tilling, 1983). This entire on-line process presumably will take no longer than 10 seconds (Stroud, 1985). If the merchant's POS terminal is not on line with a financial institution, the retailer may elect to store the debits on tape which in turn would be periodically taken to the financial institution where the debits would be electronically processed at a later date (Hewston, 1985). This procedure may serve as an

intermediate step to facilitate implementation of debit cards.

There is another stepping stone that currently is being adopted in Canada to implement debit cards and decrease consumer resistance. The first point of sale debit cards offered by Canadian institutions are in use *now* in Swift Current, Saskatchewan (Hewston, 1985; Mittelstaedt, 1984; Pfeiffer, 1982; Pickfield, 1985a; Winer, 1984; Went, 1986). The Alberta and Saskatchewan Credit Union Centrals have developed Mastercard II (a debit card). Mastercard II can currently access stores, restaurants, and credit unions. To facilitate implementation, this system supplemented the 3,000 on line plastic cards with an additional 70,000 paper based cards. These paper based cards involve filling out a voucher, similar to a credit card, and the amount purchased is debited within a few days (Pickfield, 1985a).

Whether the transaction is debited immediately, temporarily stored on tape, or initially documented on paper, the concept of transferring funds electronically at the point of sale is a reality. But how does this technology benefit the financial institutions, the retailer, and the consumer? The experts are happy because the technology works just fine (Went, 1986) but are there any adverse effects? This paper will examine some of these issues.

Benefit to Financial Institutions

Financial institutions are moving towards debit cards for several reasons. Debit cards streamline money handling and save staffing costs (Hewston, 1985; Reynolds, 1985). Debit cards will be less expensive to process than cheques (Hewston, 1985). It now costs between \$.70 to \$1.70 to process a cheque (Mittelstaedt, 1984; Reynolds, 1985; Weiner, 1984). Of significance to the banks is the fact that debit cards should substantially reduce the cost of handling paper in the form of cheques and credit card receipts (Mittelstaedt, 1984). Finally, banks will not have to deal as often with non-sufficient funds (NSF) cheques or absorb the float. "The float is the time between credit of one account and debit of another" (Hewston, 1985, p. 32).

Advantages to Retailers

Advantages to retailers include increased number of customers (Stroud, 1985), assurance of payment

(i.e. no NSF cheques), less hassle at the cash register when authorizing cheques, and no need to process and deliver credit card receipts for payments (Pfeiffer, 1982). Other benefits to the retailer are less paper handling and fewer personnel to handle it, and less cash in the till and fewer on the spot decisions by cashiers and managers (Baran & Tarrant, 1984; Electronic Banking, 1982; Hewston, 1985; Weiner, 1984). Retailers also benefit from the fact that a debit card transaction is projected to be less than half the price they now pay to conduct credit card transactions (Electronic Banking, 1982; Stroud, 1985).

Consumer Advantages

The major concern of this paper is the advantages and disadvantages for the Canadian consumer. Using a debit card will speed up shopping by making it easier to pay because they can avoid writing cheques and the resultant time consuming and sometimes demoralizing identification procedure. It is interesting to note that some retailers (eg. the Bay and Eaton's) have anticipated this perceived advantage. They are priming the consumer by piloting a POB system that verifies credit card approvals (in less than 10 seconds) instead of having to phone the bank or look at a list of stolen card numbers (Mittelstaedt, 1984).

(McGregor, 1986b). Debit cards will be convenient in those establishments that make it a policy not to cash cheques, accept credit cards or even accept cash after certain time limits (eg. gas stations). Using a debit card eventually may be a substitute for credit cards thus eliminating interest charges on unpaid balances. Finally, using a debit card is supposed to be cheaper for the consumer than writing cheques (Baran & Tarrant, 1984; Hewston, 1985; Pfeiffer, 1982; Weiner, 1984).

Consumer Issues

There are no benefits without costs. Each new innovation has its drawbacks which are often not highlighted by the institution or business implementing the change. Alan Taylor, Chairman of the Canadian Bankers Association, issued the following statement regarding consumer acceptance of the move toward electronic banking, "The public doesn't care much whether we are high tech, low tech or no tech, as long as its money is safe, readily accessible, and easily transferable. The transition from paper to electronic payment methods should appear effortless to the consumer" (Taylor, 1985, p. 45).

This remark seems condescending. Consumers *must* be aware of the

Debit cards may facilitate money management because shoppers will be limited to their available income.

Debit cards may facilitate money management because shoppers will be limited to their available income. They must remember to deduct each payment from their account record promptly as if writing a cheque or using an ATM. Consumers will no longer have to visit the bank or search out an ATM to obtain cash. Debit cards should frustrate muggers because consumers will not have to carry as much cash on their person. Fear of theft is a concern of many consumers

transition period to electronic banking and of the costs involved in adopting debit cards. It is imperative that these issues be addressed and made public. If consumers are expected to adopt and benefit from debit cards, it is essential that they be aware of the negative aspects of adopting this new innovation in the Canadian electronic payment system as well as knowing of the advantages. Two of the basic consumer rights are the right to information and choice. A consumer cannot make a

wise choice without sufficient, unbiased information.

Consumer Drawbacks

Security. The first major issue is that of security of information and funds. The EFTS should not impair the safety of a person's funds and yet the Canadian Payment Association itself acknowledges the possible security problems resulting from "invasion of a system, illegal access to personal information [and] [in] security from loss or distortion [of data] as a result of technical problems" (Roberts, 1985, p. 12; Taylor, 1985). Reynolds (1985) pointed out that one of the reservations consumers have about debit cards stems from a distrust of a wholly automated system. Security of funds is a valid issue for concern and needs to be addressed. The general manager of the Canadian Payments Association has given assurance that something going wrong with a computer "doesn't happen very often" (Roberts, 1985, p. 12). Little comfort that is to someone who is a victim of a computer malfunction. What do consumers do if something *does* go wrong with the system? The matter should not be so easily dismissed by the financial institutions.

Privacy and confidentiality. Most people cherish their privacy. The present concern over accumulation of personal information on computers (McGregor, 1986a; McGregor, 1986b; Reynolds, 1985) is reinforced with the introduction of debit cards. Pfeiffer (1982) emphasized that all debit card transactions, including time, place, and amount and description of purchase, will be registered in one data place. Pfeiffer (1982) and Hewston (1985) also indicated that there is the potential for compilation of a detailed biography or shopping profile. When financial institutions are presented with such a scenario, they respond that although "a recent public opinion testing conducted by the Canadian Bankers Association, indicated that [a consumer] places privacy very high on the priority list" (Buckle, 1985, p. 17), the financial institutions believe that consumers can rely completely on the institutions track record of a "long tradition of security protection and respect for confidentiality [and that] this track record provides the foundation upon which [they] are building the electronic payments network of the future" (Taylor, 1985, p. 47).

Lack of legislation. Those concerned with the rights of consumers do not believe that this "foundation" based on a good track record is strong enough. This foundation was built during the paper system and unquestionably should not be the sole basis for the implementation of an electronic system. To suggest so is irresponsible. The banks should not be allowed to continue to police themselves as Taylor (1985) suggests. Instead, legislation should be enacted that regulates the practices of the financial institutions and access to computer information. The new legislation should specify rights and responsibilities of both parties, establish guidelines for adjustments of errors and specify liability for unauthorized transfer of funds in case someone steals a debit card (McGregor, 1986a; McGregor, 1986b; Pfeiffer, 1982). Although there is legislation in place in the United States (the Electronic Funds Transfer Act), (MacDonald, 1984), Canada has no such legislation, neither federal or provincial. Instead, Canada has adopted a "wait and see" attitude with regards to implementing such legislation (McGregor, 1986a) thereby leaving the consumer totally unprotected in the electronic marketplace.

Loss of float. More immediate concerns which consumers may perceive with regards to adopting debit cards may include the loss of the float associated with cheque writing (Hewston, 1985; Roberts, 1985; Wente, 1986). Because the financial institutions immediately will deduct the amount from the consumers account, the delay before payment due is lost. The consumer can no longer count on several days for the amount of the cheque to be debited nor can a Friday cheque be covered on Monday (Tilling, 1983). The consumer in essence has lost "an interest free loan which is paid

back when the cheque finally clears" (Uhlander & Krasnick, 1975, p. 3). When asked what happens to that credit (float), Roberts (1985) replied, "the float has been an item of cost to the financial institutions who carried it on behalf of their customers. Its reduction has improved [the banks] cost efficiency. . . ." (p. 11). How many dollars does this amount to? This cost saving could be passed onto the consumer via no user fee for debit card usage. Will this cost benefit for the consumer be considered?

Paper documentation. What type of paper documentation will the consumer receive, if any? Will they obtain a receipt? Seeing as the objective of the financial institution is to reduce handling of paper, one would think not. In fact, electronic funds transfer might ultimately dispense with cheques altogether (Weiner, 1984).

Court evidence. In an EFT system, payments are made through a series of electronic impluses. Will the computer records of these payments be allowed as evidence of proof in disputes as are cancelled cheques or will there be complications due to the fact that the evidence is computer generated (McGregor, 1986a; Pfeiffer, 1982)?

Stop payment. In the case of discrepancies between the consumer and the retailer, consumers can stop payment on a cheque. But in the debit card system the right to stop payment is impossible because payment will be instantaneous (Pfeiffer, 1982; Weiner, 1984). Consumers may end up having to pay for defective merchandise or services or even for purchases they never received. Withholding payment is a persuasive way to have a problem rectified. With a debit card, this leverage is minimized. Even though provincial legislation may provide

Withholding payment is a persuasive way to have a problem rectified. With a debit card, this leverage is minimized.

some recourse, the process will be a lot more complicated than simply stopping or withholding payment until you get what you are supposed to be paying for (Tilling, 1983). Pfeiffer (1982) suggested introducing the mechanism of a charge-back whereby the consumer can reverse the payment thus requiring the retailer to sue the customer for payment. This issue of stop payment needs attention prior to full implementation of debit cards.

User fee. Retailers are reportedly to be charged between 1 to 5 percent on each debit card transaction plus memberships fees in the debit card system (Hewston, 1985). Will this extra cost be reflected in higher costs for consumer goods and services? How will these costs be divided among the system users (Pfeiffer, 1982)?

Refunds and universality. Another unresolved issue pertains to how a consumer will handle a refund (Hewston, 1985; Pfeiffer, 1982; Weiner, 1984)? Will this be a critical issue? As well, these same authors are concerned with how universal the debit card will be? How necessary will it be that it is universal between banks, retailers, cities, provinces, countries, or nations? Further, theoretically, debit cards can be obtained by everyone who has a chequing or deposit account because purchases can be limited solely by the assets available at any time in an account. In other words, if the money is not there, the purchase cannot be made. There should not be any need for a minimum credit rating or credit check prior to a purchase or issuance of the card (Hewston, 1985). Will this be an advantage for the consumer?

Consumer choice. Although financial institutions claim they always will be prepared to leave a degree of choice open to the consumer (Roberts, 1985), James Savery, a Consumers Association of Canada business and financial adviser, is concerned that the consumer choice may be narrowed such that they have no choice but to

use a debit card rather than a cheque, credit card or even cash (Weiner, 1984; Wente, 1986). Hopefully, we will see more paper based debit card systems like the Alberta-Saskatchewan credit union model before true electronic systems arise. This would be one way to facilitate the transition period necessary for the consideration of adopting debit cards.

Conclusion

In view of so many unresolved issues, consumers must be involved in the development of debit cards (McGregor, 1986a; Reynolds, 1985; Pfeiffer, 1982; Uhlander & Krasnick, 1975). This view has also been voiced by the Canadian Bankers Association (Taylor, 1985). Yet, in the same breath, Taylor maintained that consumers must rely on their trust in the Canadian payment system and continue to let the financial institutions police themselves and control the development of standards and resolution of disputes related to electronic banking. Which is it to be, consumer involvement or self regulation?

"A Royal Bank spokesman declared that it is important to press on with automation of routine transactions. Consumers find it equally important to press for a seat at the decision making table" (Reynolds, 1985, p. 6). During 1986, the Royal Bank expects to have over 4,000 POS terminals in retail outlets across Canada (Krammer, 1986). Interlink, a POS system linking California's five major banks is now officially operational (Stroud, 1985). Debit cards will be able to be used around the world. Mittelstaedt (1984) reported that feasibly one would be able to purchase a pair of socks in Tokyo with Mastercard II (the Canadian debit card being piloted in Saskatchewan).

An electronic payment system with such universal ramifications and yet so many unresolved issues, without a doubt, necessitates joint co-operation among consumers, government, busi-

ness, and financial institutions in the development, regulation and implementation of this system. □

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Fur Fashions From a Northern Perspective

Jill Oakes

Abstract

Inuit (native inhabitants of the Canadian Arctic) proudly model their traditional skin clothing styles in the first living exhibition of Inuit clothing titled "INUIT ANNURAANGIT: Our Clothes". This cultural fashion show is travelling to many southern and northern communities. The commentary includes social histories of garments from Holman Island, Gjoa Haven, Igloolik, Pangnirtung, and other Arctic communities. This living exhibition reveals how skin clothing fits into contemporary Inuit lifestyles. Legends, inter-settlement trade, whalers, fur traders and other factors influencing fashion features are discussed in the wide variety of clothing worn by Inuit men, women, and children. Inuit involved on stage, back stage and in the audience, describe how pride in their culture is reinforced by the many questions asked by non-native members of the audience.

Résumé

Les Inuit, autochtones de l'Arctique canadien, arborent fièrement leurs styles de vêtements de peau traditionnels dans le cadre de la toute première exposition animée de vêtements inuit intitulée "INUIT ANNURAANGIT: Nos vêtements". Ce défilé de mode culturel itinérant est présenté à de nombreuses communautés du sud et du nord. Le commentaire comporte l'historique social des vêtements portés sur l'île Holman, à Gjoa Haven, Igloolik, Pangnirtung et autres régions de l'Arctique. Cette exposition "vivante" révèle l'adaptation des vêtements de peau au mode de vie inuit contemporain. Par l'intermédiaire d'une vaste gamme de vêtements portés par hommes, femmes et enfants inuit, on présente les facteurs tels légendes, échanges inter-communautés, pêcheurs de baleine, commerçants de fourrure et autres ayant influencé la mode. Les Inuit impliqués dans le défilé et ses préparatifs ainsi que ceux de l'auditoire décrivent à quel point la fierté en leur culture est rehaussée par les nombreuses questions posées par les membres non-autochtones présents.



"Arlene Anoe and her daughter Daisy model a model south Baffin Island parka style. These parkas are usually worn in cold, winter weather."

Photo Credit: Jill Oakes, 1987

The lights dim, sounds of a drum dance drift across the stage and "INUIT ANNURAANGIT: Our Clothes", a living exhibition of caribou skin clothing, begins. For the first time Inuit skin clothing is brought to life by

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Inuit models in a travelling cultural fashion show. Audiences across northern and southern Canada have the opportunity to touch the skin garments and chat with models as they meander down the aisles.

The exhibition opened in Eskimo Point and has travelled to Rankin Inlet, Iqaluit (Frobisher Bay), Cambridge Bay, Yellowknife, Winnipeg, Ottawa, Toronto, and Montreal. The final shows will be held at the Winter Olympics '88 in Calgary and the

Winter Cities '88 Conference in Edmonton.

Models of all ages wear caribou and seal skin parkas made by MacKenzie Delta, Copper, Netsilik, Igloolik, Keewatin, and south Baffin Island Inuit seamstresses. Agnes Nigiyok (84 years old) made a replica of a Holman Island style worn in the early 1900s. Agnes remembered when "We wore only skin clothing when I was little, no calico, no canvas or anything else. No tea, just meat and gravy."

Each garment is made using techniques passed down from one generation to the next. Skins are softened by hand, cut using hand-eye measurements, and hand sewn. The result is an elegant garment that is more useful in the arctic winter than ready-made winter apparel.

A wide variety of fashions selected from each Canadian Arctic region are included in the travelling fashion show. "In the old days, Inuit could tell where someone was from by looking at their skin clothing styles," explained Ulayok Kaviok from Eskimo Point. Each parka contains a fascinating social history which is unveiled to the audience.

June Klengenberg, Holman Island, includes a parka style introduced to the Coronation Gulf by Captain Klengenberg's wife, Kenmek, in 1916. Captain Klengenberg was a whaler in the western Arctic and at the turn of the twentieth century the whaling industry collapsed. The shift from whaling to trading inspired Captain Klengenberg to convert his ship into a floating trading post and move his family eastward. Kenmek, and her eldest daughter, dressed the family in their traditional Point Hope, Alaska styles which soon became popular with the Inuit in the Coronation Gulf. Today, this style is worn by men, women, and children of all ages.

Tiny, geometric pieces of light and dark haired caribou skin are sewn together, forming a quilt-like band of trim. This trim is sewn along the hemline, sleeve seams, hood seams, and inserted across the front and back chest. The woman's version of this colorful parka style has a glorious sunburst fur ruff. The ruff is made by sewing small pieces of wolf to a stiff backing, creating a halo effect. The face is framed with luxurious fur from wolverine; a prestigious fur in the western Arctic. An amazing amount of work is involved in making this style, nevertheless, it is used for hunting, playing, and special occasions.

The collection of parkas from the central Arctic (Gjoa Havel area) illustrate how the western style is slowly spreading further eastward. Wolverine are scarce in this area, therefore seamstresses use muskox and dog skins as a substitute in order to create the western Arctic image. Inuit in the central Arctic also wear a variety of styles introduced by Caribou and Igloodik Inuit in the east.

Parkas embellished with beads were worn by both sexes in the early 1900s. Today, beadwork is sewn only to women and girls clothing. The lavishly beaded parka included in the exhibit was made by three women in the Keewatin in 1930. The beadwork was passed down to Rhoda Karetak,

*Each garment is made
using techniques passed
down from one generation
to another.*

Rankin Inlet, who recently remounted the beaded panels on a fabric parka. The new parka is pouchless and has a long back tail which is tied up. This style was commonly worn by childless, unmarried women and is very seldom used today. Once a young woman reached puberty or had a child the strings were cut on their parka, allowing the back tail to drop.

Beaded fringes decorate the front, hood, and shoulders of the Karetak's family heirloom. A caribou tooth is attached to the end of each fringe, creating a soft, melodic chime each time the model moves through the audience of admiring eyes. A tiny hole was drilled in each tooth by Winnie Crawford. Winnie recalls using a

mouth drill with a small, triangular needle as a drill bit. Mary Meeko, Eskimo Point, advises "...mouth drills are still the best way of making holes in caribou teeth."

Women wear a parka with a built in carrying pouch for packing young children. Traditionally, eastern Arctic women from Baffin Island wore parkas with long tails. A modern style with a broad, cape-like hood and a skirt-like hemline, made by Mary Battye from Pangnirtung, was also included in the show. The new hemline style has spread to northern Baffin Island and the Keewatin.

Across the Arctic, toddlers are instantly transformed into cuddly, bear-like creatures when they skip into their caribou skin snow suit. The traditional snowsuit has a split crotch to enable easy elimination without getting undressed. This design feature was a blessing to busy mothers that wanted their child's snowsuit to last as long as possible.

As the last model exits, the faint drum beat grows stronger. The tempo quickens and the drummer is soon flanked by smiling models wearing fur fashions from across the Canadian Arctic. Jocum Ayaiuk summed up the feeling expressed by many Inuit who participated in the show, "Today I feel like a real Inuk (Eskimo). I feel really good about my culture and am happy to see so many people interested in my way of life." Once the tour is complete, the clothing will return to a museum proposed by Inuit Silattuqsarvingat in Eskimo Point. Sally Karetak, assistant co-ordinator of the exhibition will act as curator. □

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Residential Rehabilitation: The Homeowner's Decision

Jean Ashdown

Abstract

Revitalization programs, including those developed by the Canadian government, rely on homeowners to take advantage of these programs and undertake home rehabilitation voluntarily. However, many factors will influence the homeowner's decision. This paper examines several elements which have contributed to the deterioration of housing in neighborhoods and some solutions that have been applied. Through a review of journal articles and research reports, an examination of a number of factors affecting the decision of homeowners to rehabilitate their homes constitutes the major portion of this paper. Suggestions are made for new programs which address these factors adequately and for educational programs to explain and promote rehabilitation to residents so that the decay of neighborhoods can be stopped.

Résumé

Les programmes de revitalisation, y compris ceux élaborés par le gouvernement canadien, dépendent de la bonne volonté des propriétaires d'utiliser et d'entreprendre les travaux. Toutefois de nombreux facteurs vont influencer la décision du propriétaire. Cet article étudie plusieurs facteurs qui ont contribué à la détérioration des habitations dans certains quartiers et quelques solutions qui ont été utilisées. Une grande partie de cet article est constituée de l'examen d'un nombre de facteurs affectant la décision des propriétaires de rénover leur maison, en se basant sur une recréation des articles des périodiques et des compte-rendus de recherches. On y suggère de nouveaux programmes répondant adéquatement à ces facteurs et des programmes éducatifs pour expliquer et promouvoir la rénovation aux propriétaires afin d'arrêter la détérioration des quartiers.

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Canada has an increasingly large stock of older housing. The existing stock of residential buildings, of which over 80% may last until 2020, represents a source of wealth that can only be sustained by a suitable amount of maintenance and repair expenditure (Mallin, 1984, p. 28). This becomes an economic necessity as it is costly to replace the housing stock that is lost due to permanent losses (due to arson, vandalism, and neglect) and temporary losses (due to conversion to non-housing uses and deterioration). There is also a need to conserve natural materials and energy. The private sector holds the primary responsibility for maintaining the existing housing stock but at time may fail to do so. Government programs may then be developed with the hope of providing incentives to upgrade housing which has fallen below standards. While the success of such programs is independent on many factors, it is important to note that these programs rely on the willingness of the homeowner to take advantage of the assistance programs and undertake the necessary renovations.

This paper will examine briefly some of the elements which have contributed to the decline of neighborhoods and some of the solutions that have been applied, including the revitalization programs developed by the Canadian government: the Neighbourhood Improvement Program (NIP) and the Residential Rehabilitation Assistance Program (RRAP). This will be followed by a review of a number of factors affecting the homeowner's decision to rehabilitate their housing unit, including characteristics of the homeowner and the housing unit, and attitudes of homeowners regarding their neighborhoods. The paper will conclude with a number of recommendations for further research regarding factors motivating homeowners to upgrade their housing.

The following terms appear throughout this paper and are defined as follows:

Urban renewal is a social program designed to encourage and assist the development of well-planned residential neighborhoods, the development and redevelopment of communities, and the production of housing of sound standards of design, construction, livability, and size for adequate family life (Geer, 1965, p. 6).

Neighborhood revitalization is the process of restoring the sense of community to a neighborhood occupied by low and moderate-income people by improving housing conditions and community facilities thereby creating a healthy and satisfying place to live (Falkner, 1977, p. 28).

Residential rehabilitation is renovation designed to bring deteriorating housing units up to present building standards (Falkner, 1966, p. 31).

Inner city areas are regions within urban centres including, but not confined to, those surrounding the central business district that are experiencing aging and deterioration of the housing stock, demographic changes including an aging population and loss of family households, and possible land use competition through expansion of commercial functions, highways, and institutional uses (Clatworthy, Frennette, & McKee, 1979, p. 3).

Neighborhood Decline and Revitalization

Neighborhoods go through life cycle patterns which have three stages: health and growth; relative stability; and, transition and decline (Clatworthy, et al., 1979, p. 13). This last stage may lead to abandonment but the trend can be reversed and the neighborhood revitalized.

The process of transition and decline occurred in inner city areas of Canada after World War II. At that time, there

was an increased demand for housing which led to the creation of large suburban areas around the major urban areas. The desire to live in single-family dwellings located in the suburbs, drew large numbers of people away from the inner city areas. This has resulted in inner city areas which generally have populations characterized by fewer families and more single individuals. They contain more single-parent families and a larger proportion of elderly, both groups likely having lower incomes. In these areas, higher rates of unemployment and a greater incidence of poverty are also found (Clatworthy, Frennette, & McKee, 1979, p. 3). The residents, being of generally low to middle-income, are often unable to keep up with the increasing need for housing repairs. Thus much of the housing stock gradually deteriorates. These areas may then be seen as blights on the community and, therefore, some solution may be sought. Mercer and Phillips (1981, p. 216-217) have outlined a number of processes which can occur, some of them simultaneously:

- private developers buy and redevelop the sites creating high-density apartment areas;
- public capital is used to purchase and clear the sites, and then private investment is sought to redevelop the area following a municipally approved plan with similar results as above;
- public agencies acquire, clear, and develop the sites primarily for public use such as public housing, government offices, or sports complexes;
- no investment occurs and the area remains in a decayed and sometimes partially abandoned state;
- a process referred to as "gentrification" occurs where the original population is displaced by affluent households who, wishing to have the amenities of inner city living, rehabilitate the existing stock; or
- publicly assisted improvement and rehabilitation programs lead to a substantial improvement in local housing stock and neighborhood conditions without displacement of the occupants.

In Canada, up until the 1970s, urban renewal invariably meant the clearance of older buildings. This type of urban renewal destroyed the existing physical environment and social structure of the areas affected. While the residents suffered, public goals

were being achieved and private development was profiting. After the release of the 1969 report of the Federal Task Force on Housing and Urban Development, which revealed the high social and political costs of urban renewal, these types of urban renewal programs came to a halt and the federal government had to develop new policies which would conform to the demands of community groups and municipal and provincial governments (Willson, 1980, p. 8).

In 1973, amendments to the National Housing Act were made including the introduction of two new programs designed to promote neighborhood revitalization. The Neighbourhood Improvement Program (NIP), enacted in 1973, was designed to improve the amenities of neighborhoods and the housing and living conditions of the residents. This was accomplished by providing funding for social and recreational facilities, improvements to municipal services, and the acquisition and clearance of land for social housing. The companion program, the Residential Rehabilitation Assistance Program (RRAP), provided grants or loans to homeowners for repairs and improvements to bring existing housing up to standards of health and safety. Both of these programs were funded and administered through the Canadian Mortgage and Housing Corporation (CMHC) with neighborhoods being selected by municipalities based on federal-provincial criteria. RRAP provided assistance in the form of a loan to the maximum of \$10,000 per dwelling. Depending on the family income, part of this loan could be forgiven to a maximum of \$3,750.

NIP terminated in 1978 after only 5 years. During that time, approximately 50 million dollars had been spent in 479 neighborhoods across Canada. RRAP has continued but is no longer focussed on specifically designated areas. Several provincial and municipal governments have created programs similar to NIP, such as the Winnipeg Core Area Initiative, since there was a perceived need for a holistic approach of both neighborhood revitalization and individual residential rehabilitation (Carter, 1986, p. 14). An important feature of this type of program is its voluntary nature wherein the decision to rehabilitate and take advantage of the program is left to eligible homeowners.

Serious consequences result if a municipality takes advantage of a program like NIP and spends considerable amounts of money improving the amenities and infrastructure of an inner city area, and then finds that housing conditions remain unchanged as homeowners do not show an interest in rehabilitating their own properties (Mercer & Phillips, 1981, p. 224).

It must be perfectly clear that mere identification of an area of old, deteriorated, or deteriorating homes in a neighbourhood which lacks all or many of the amenities we would wish to see in every neighbourhood is not sufficient to inspire the process which we conceive as rehabilitation. In fact, such neighbourhoods are usually distinguishable by the absence of programmes of maintenance or of improvement, and by a sense of frustration and impotence on the part of both homeowners and tenants alike. (Rose, 1966, p. 6)

Understanding the factors involved in the homeowner's decision to make housing improvements and expenditures is important for policymakers who are trying to devise and implement programs aimed at neighborhood revitalization and residential rehabilitation.

Factors Affecting the Homeowner's Decision to Rehabilitate

The factors that will be examined in this paper will be divided into three areas: characteristics of the homeowner; characteristics of the housing unit; and, attitudes of homeowners towards their neighborhood.

The homeowner. The financial situation of the homeowner is an extremely important factor in determining both the willingness and capability of the homeowner to make improvements. In a study of U.S. Census observations of

The financial situation of the homeowner is an extremely important factor in determining both the willingness and capability of the homeowner to make improvements.

residential alterations and repairs taken in 1971 and 1972, Mendelsohn (1977) found that households with higher incomes spent more on maintenance and also did less of the work themselves. He also found that younger people did more of the work themselves. This he attributed to their greater ability to do the work whereas the elderly, who spent almost as much as the other age groups, probably had to rely on hired help. Morrison's study (1978) of maintenance and repair expenditures made in Toronto in 1974, was based on the Survey of Housing Units carried out by Statistics Canada for CMHC. He found that the highest annual repair expenditures were made by younger owners, those with higher incomes and those who had recently purchased their dwellings.

As previously discussed, inner city neighborhoods which are in need of revitalization are generally occupied by low to middle-income residents, often with a high proportion of elderly, single-parent families, and unemployed. These are not generally the group of people who undertake improvements, as they do not have the financial resources. Rose (1966) found that the homeowners interviewed in three inner city neighborhoods of Toronto preferred to undertake modest improvements each year for a number of years, doing most or all of the work with their own or family labor. For the elderly, who may be unable to do the work themselves, improvements represent an even greater financial cost especially when they have little or no income.

An interesting finding in several research studies was the attitude towards indebtedness. In Rose's study (1966), many of the homeowners were elderly and had a strong dislike or even fear of incurring further debt. This may have been partly because of age and the fact that they may have long ago paid off their mortgages. Where age was not a factor, the generally low incomes in the area along with a fear of unemployment, also made acquiring debt an unattractive solution for home improvements. In later studies, when RRAP loans were available, this avoidance of debt also became apparent. Mercer and Phillips (1981) found in their Vancouver study, that households without mortgages or other major loans were more likely to apply for RRAP loans, with 40% of RRAP users being senior citizens who were

often eligible for an outright grant. Only 7% of recent homeowners in core neighborhoods of Saskatchewan applied for aid from RRAP likely because many were unestablished, first-time homeowners who had high debt-income ratios (Phipps, 1983). A possible solution would be to take the existence of a mortgage into account when determining eligibility for a loan (Mercer & Phillips, 1981).

Another common fear was that of increased taxes. The need for taxation procedures which reward, rather than penalize, behavior consistent with social goals or tax abatement for a period of time were seen as ways of overcoming this deterrent to rehabilitation (Mercer & Phillips, 1981; Rose, 1966).

The housing unit. Characteristics of the housing unit such as age, size, and condition are important factors in determining the expense involved in

*Peer pressure may be a
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their properties.*

rehabilitation. There have been few studies which have examined the willingness of the homeowner to rehabilitate based on the condition of the home. It can be expected that a home which is older, or larger, or in poor condition, will require a larger expenditure on the part of the homeowner to bring it up to acceptable standards. Morrison's study (1978) of expenditures in Toronto found that, in general, older, as well as lower valued housing, was likely to incur some expenditure but that higher valued properties were the ones which incurred the higher single expenditures. This supports Rose's finding (1966) that homeowners preferred to undertake modest improvements over a number of years. Both of these studies seem to suggest that more cosmetic repairs are done in lower valued housing than major, more costly repairs. However, the increased rate of decay over time will greatly

reduce the effectiveness that a small amount of expenditure will have in stopping the process of deterioration. As well, more and more housing units will reach a state of deterioration which is beyond the point of repair. It is unrealistic to save housing units which have reached this point and these units could then be torn down and replaced with new housing (Falkner, 1977, p. 11).

The neighborhood. The attitude of homeowners towards their neighborhood is also a significant factor in determining the willingness to undertake home improvements. In one study, those who were not interested in improving their homes often expressed displeasure with their neighborhood. Their displeasure was illustrated by their personal views concerning their neighbors, changes in the balance of home ownership and tenancy, changes in the ethnic distribution and, less often, the physical aspects of the neighborhood (Rose, 1966). This was confirmed by Mercer and Phillips (1981) who found that if the attitude of the homeowner was negative regarding the physical and social changes taking place and their personal ability to change it, then these homeowners were less likely to rehabilitate their properties. Residents were likely to rehabilitate if they had a positive view of the neighborhood, its future, and stability. Therefore, local governments have a vital role in improving the quality of public services and upgrading the local infrastructure in order to create a more favorable climate in which to encourage rehabilitation. These studies support the claim that programs like RRAP cannot work in isolation without a complimentary program aimed at improving the entire area (Carter, 1986). The perception of crime as a major problem also has been shown to have a negative effect on the amount spent in home improvements (Boehm & Ihlanfeldt, 1986).

Peer pressure may be a factor in encouraging homeowners to rehabilitate their properties. In the Rose study (1966), many residents believed that if persons in the neighborhood undertook some home improvements, others would be encouraged to do likewise. However, relatively few people in the Mercer & Phillips study (1981) felt such encouragement. The researchers felt this may have been due to the fact that the RRAP program was still new. Of

recent occupants of core neighborhoods in Saskatoon, those planning renovations were partially motivated by their neighbors' activities, while personal satisfaction and increasing the resale value were cited as the motivating factors for those who had completed renovations (Phipps, 1983).

Many people prefer to do interior improvements, which they see as directly benefitting themselves, rather than exterior improvements which are seen as benefitting their neighbors (Rose, 1966).

Summary

The two major factors which appear to influence whether or not homeowners will make improvements to their homes are their financial situation, whether they can afford the amount of renovations that are necessary to upgrade their housing, and their attitudes towards the neighborhood, including the neighbors and the future of the area in which they live. Several researchers (Boehm & Ihlanfeldt, 1986; Mendelsohn, 1977) have tried to devise mathematical models using measurable variables to predict whether or not a homeowner will make improvements. They have not yet been successful, possibly because the diverse preferences for alternative living environments which people have, cannot be measured (Boehm & Ihlanfeldt, 1986, p. 59).

Programs such as NIP and RRAP were designed to help homeowners afford improvements and give them a positive outlook on their neighborhoods. Although NIP no longer exists, RRAP continues to focus on individual housing units but not within any specifically designated areas. Some provinces and municipalities have

tried to fill the void left by NIP and RRAP by introducing their own programs. However, these programs are not available to all areas in Canada which are in need of neighborhood revitalization. Governments need to introduce revitalization programs that will produce significant improvements through widespread use. In addition to the two major factors noted above, other factors, such as fear of increasing debt and rising taxes, which have deterred many homeowners from undertaking rehabilitation projects must be addressed. Educational programs which could explain the process of residential rehabilitation and give advice to the homeowners who wish to make improvements could be offered.

If a system of voluntary rehabilitation of housing is to be undertaken within a comprehensive programme of urban renewal, it is essential that the municipality establish, within the affected area, a centre where resident homeowners can get advice concerning the improvement of their properties. Homeowners were enthusiastic about this prospect and it is obvious that they need to know much more about (a) deficiencies identified by housing inspectors, (b) the most satisfactory methods of repair and improvement, (c) the availability of reliable contractors or tradesmen to assist them, (d) the standards which the city bylaws demand in the carrying out of such improvements, and (e) the possible sources of financing and the terms of repayment. (Rose, 1966, p. 95)

If the decay of inner city areas is to be stopped, ways must be found to increase the rate of neighborhood revitalization. At present, the best way of affecting positive change with a low amount of social disruption seems to be by encouraging those who hold the primary responsibility for improving their environment, the homeowners.

By understanding the factors involved in homeowner decisions to voluntarily make housing improvements and take advantage of government programs, better programs for neighborhood revitalization can be developed. In this way, the trend towards the decay of neighborhoods can be reversed and, housing stock and communities can be saved. □

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Certification of Home Economists: A Program of the American Home Economics Association

Shirley Myers

Abstract

The American Home Economics Association has implemented a voluntary program for the certification of home economists. The program serves as a regulator of standards in the home economics profession. Two methods for certification were established — chartering and examination. Recertification is contingent upon completion of a specified number of professional development units. While administratively different from proposed professional registration of home economists in some provinces, all programs have the public interest as a central focus.

Résumé

La American Home Economics Association (l'association américaine d'économie familiale) a mis sur pied un programme bénévole concernant l'accréditation professionnelle de ces gens impliqués dans le domaine de l'économie familiale. Le programme sert d'agent régulateur des normes de la profession. Deux méthodes d'accréditation ont été établies: l'agrément et l'examen. La réaccréditation dépend du nombre précis d'unités de formation professionnelle obtenues. Bien que différents, au niveau administratif, de la reconnaissance professionnelle proposée pour les travailleurs dans ce domaine dans certaines provinces, tous les programmes ont d'abord et avant tout à coeur l'intérêt de la population.

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Regulation of the practice of home economics is a goal of a number of provincial home economics associations. In Alberta, work towards professional registration began over 15 years ago. Realization of the goal is expected to occur this year when the Alberta Home Economics Association becomes registered under the Professional and Occupational Associations Registration Act.

In the United States, the American Home Economics Association (AHEA) has implemented a program for the certification of home economists. This program, together with the association's accreditation program for review of baccalaureate home economics programs in colleges and universities and its code of ethics for professional practice, will serve as a regulator of standards in the home economics profession.

Unlike efforts in Canada to become regulated under provincial statute, this voluntary certification program is sponsored by the American Home Economics Association and is not associated with any government regulatory agency.

Purpose of Certification

The program, which came into effect on January 1, 1987, is intended to serve a number of purposes:

- delineate the scope of practice in home economics
- provide assurance to consumers that certified home economists are well prepared for professional practice

- distinguish qualified professional home economists from those who do not meet professional requirements
- encourage increased continuing education
- enhance employment opportunities
- assist employers in recruitment and selection
- foster more uniform standards of good practice in the field
- enhance professionalism within the field of home economics through increasing accountability to other professionals and the public
- affirm the competence of home economics practitioners
- provide recognition to individual home economists

Methods of Certification

To implement the program, two avenues for certification were established:

Chartered Method

During the initial period of the program, November 1, 1986 to October 31, 1987, active or supporting AHEA members could apply to become chartered as Certified Home Economists (C.H.E.). In submitting a signed application to become a chartered Certified Home Economist, members agreed to ascribe to the American Home Economics Association Code of Ethics. A fee of \$100 was levied for chartering and was in addition to the association's membership fee.

Chartering was a one time opportunity to recognize the professional experience and competence of current

practitioners. The association set a goal of 3,000 certifications by November 1, 1987, and by mid October 1986, 2,500 people had prepaid. By September 1, 1987 over 11,000 applications for certification had been submitted.

Examination Method

After the chartering period, the route to certification is via passing a required examination. Membership in the American Home Economics Association is not a condition for certification by this method. Candidates must hold a bachelor's or higher degree in home economics from a regionally accredited institution of postsecondary accreditation, but the degree does not have to be from an AHEA accredited baccalaureate program. Application to become certified is made, the examination taken, and a fee is paid.

The purpose of the exam is to assess the candidate's mastery of the common body of knowledge in home economics as it relates to successful professional practice in the field.

The American Home Economics Association has employed American College Testing Program Incorporated to provide assistance in the development and administration of the examination. To begin the development process a panel of experts were brought together to identify the knowledge, skills, and abilities common to home economics professionals. From the panel's list of competencies a questionnaire was prepared. Over 1,500 randomly selected active AHEA members were surveyed to determine the importance of the common knowledge, skills, and abilities for home economics professionals and their frequency of use in professional practice. There was a 70% response rate. Results of the survey were used by home economics professionals responsible for writing test items for inclusion in the examination.

The examination will be administered for the first time at the AHEA Annual Meeting in June 1988. After that, it will be given each February and June at about 60 sites in the United States.

Recertification

Certification is valid for a three year period. In addition to the initial fee, there is an annual maintenance fee of \$25 to cover the costs of reporting and recording professional development units.

Renewal of certification after the three year period is contingent upon completion of 75 approved professional development units within the three year period and payment of the annual maintenance fee.

A variety of activities will be eligible for professional development units. Criteria will be established for approving professional development activities. These activities might include: attendance at approved sessions at the AHEA Annual Meeting or regional state, district, and local home economics professional meetings; completion of college and university courses, workshops and seminars; in-service

"The purposes of the certification program are similar to the goals of registration of home economists in Alberta."

education sessions; presentation of research, creative or other scholarly activity. Work on this aspect of the renewal of certification is underway.

Failure to meet the requirements for renewal will result in the certification being revoked. The avenue to becoming certified again will be through examination.

Special Endorsement

Certification in areas of specialization within home economics may become possible at a later date. Subject Matter and Professional Sections of the American Home Economics Association are considering the need for speciality endorsement. Where the

need for certification in a specialty area is clearly demonstrated, a means of achieving this additional endorsement will be developed.

Program Administration

The American Home Economics Association, as sponsor of the certification program, has spearheaded its development and is providing administrative support for the program. An Interim Council for Certification has been appointed to develop policies and procedures and to determine eligibility for certification. The 15 member council is comprised of educators, practicing professionals, and lay representatives. The intent is for the certification program to be autonomous of the association.

Funding for the program comes from several sources. A start-up grant of \$10,000 from the American Home Economics Association Foundation helped to launch the program. Donations from corporations and foundations, member contributions, and applicant fees for chartering have supported initial development costs. When fully implemented, administrative expenses will be supported by applicant fees to enable the program to be self-supporting.

The purposes of this certification program are similar to the goals of registration of home economists in Alberta. A number of the purposes stated by the American Home Economics Association imply a public interest focus. In Alberta, protection of the public is the prime purpose of any legislation or regulation respecting professions. Whether it is an association sponsored certification program or regulation under provincial statute, the profession as well as the public will benefit. □

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Fashion Design: A True Story

Rose Fedorak

A fashion designer is a person who is employed to create ideas for garments and accessories in the fashion industry or who creates garments that are exclusive, one of a kind, or made to order (Frings, 1987, p. 264). As part of a research project which looked at the fashion industry in the Maritime and Western Provinces, 24 designers or their representatives were interviewed to discover the excitement, problems,

Abstract

Although the career of fashion designing may seem glamorous and exciting, the work is not without frustration and long hours. Twenty-four designers in the Maritime and Western provinces provided the information for this paper which briefly describes their work, problems relating to location, and their hints for success.

Résumé

Quorque le métier de créateur de mode paraisse prestigieux et passionant, il ne va pas sans frustrations et sans longues heures de travail. Vingt-quatre créateurs des Maritimes et des provinces de l'ouest ont donné des renseignements pour cet article qui décrit brièvement leur travail, les difficultés reliées à leur lieu de travail et leur suggestions pour réussir dans ce métier.

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glamour, and frustration of a career in the fashion industry. Sixty-four manufacturers provided information on the industry in general, and specifically on the role of the designer in mass production of fashion.

Production and Distribution of Fashion

Designers, whether self-employed or hired by manufacturers, can market their products in three ways: wholesale to retailers, directly to the customer through a retail outlet, or exclusively (one of a kind) to a private clientele. These will be discussed in more detail with emphasis on the self-employed designer.

Wholesale. Selling wholesale to retailers implies mass production. Designers can either work for or have their own manufacturing company which produces fashions for a small or large segment of the population depending on the size and scope of the company.

Many Canadian designers employed by the industry are unknown to the consumer as was confirmed by 59 manufacturers who indicated that their labels and advertising do not include designers' names. Several manufacturers cautioned that "designer" was not an appropriate term since genuinely new ideas in the industry were rare. Instead, a design team would work at adapting designs to fit in with the philosophy and capabilities of the company selecting new fabrics and colors to reflect current fashion trends. The design team would be responsible for the designs, patterns, fabric selection, and sample production.

Designers whose names appear on garment labels would do the same work as those who work anonymously but perhaps with more creative freedom. They would still have to be aware of company constraints, keeping their designs within a predetermined cost range, and reflecting a particular image as defined by the firm (Tracy Phibbs, personal communication, September 17, 1986).

Designers who have their own companies could set their own fashion limits but they have the added responsibility of managing their business. Sharon Oakley of Harmony Classics, Halifax, describes her role as design, management, and sales. On the other hand, Trudy Jansen of Canadian

Sunset Fashions, Edmonton, felt it was important to have a partner who handled the business aspect, leaving the designing to her. Although it would be ideal to have a staff to operate the business, many designers have to start on a small scale, handling the work on their own, and then hire management personnel as the company expands.

Direct to customer. Fashions do not have to be sold wholesale to the retailer. Designers can market their products directly to the customer through their studio or store, or on consignment through other establishments. This type of production is actually small scale manufacturing as usually a limited number of each design would be produced. These designers would have similar responsibilities in operating their companies as those who sell wholesale. If their business include a retail outlet, they would have the added burden of managing that facet as well.

One of a kind. Designers seeking the most creative freedom may choose to do one of a kind or made to order fashions for a private clientele. Philip Drake, Imy Brown, Sig Plach, and Charles Thompson indicated that they did not like the constraints of mass production and preferred to work on a one to one basis with their clients. However, three designers indicated that this type of work could also include compromise. Ester Huget, Jerry Chong, and Monika Klein stated that the client's preferences, personality, and physical attributes must be considered which might conflict with the designer's ideals.

Two designers enjoyed the luxury of creating one of a kind designs without dealing with individual clients. Sheila Martineau, now retired from the industry, designed spectacular quilted, appliqued, and hand painted garments. Gail Bachynski incorporates historic details and techniques in her works of art.

Eight of the 22 designers combined two or three of the marketing approaches, giving their work a broader scope. This would provide access to different markets and give the designers an opportunity to create a variety of fashions.

Location — Plus or Minus?

The city in which a designer lives may be an asset, a liability, or a

Designers seeking the most creative freedom may choose to do one of a kind or made to order fashions for a private clientele.

combination of both. As most Canadians know, Montreal and Toronto are the fashion centers, yet the participants in this survey lived and worked in Halifax, New Germany, Truro, Fredericton, Winnipeg, Edmonton, Calgary, and Vancouver. How did this affect their business?

All of the designers enjoyed the city they called "home" and felt that it was "a nice place to live". Nevertheless, Selma Kuchmak and Gail Bachynski, both from Edmonton, felt it was a disadvantage to be away from the stimulation of a major fashion center. Selma did state that it was easier to be recognized and given star status by the Edmonton media because there was not as much competition with other designers.

Just the opposite was reported by Alan Einarson and Megham Gray of Trace Designs, Winnipeg. Local press did not provide adequate coverage even when news releases were provided. Also, contrary to the Edmonton designers, they did not feel at a disadvantage being away from the fashion scene in Toronto and Montreal.

Supplies. One disadvantage that all designers agreed to was the distance from major suppliers of fabrics, yarns and notions located primarily in Toronto and Montreal. Related to the distance was the problem of late delivery of supplies, delaying production and making it difficult to meet deadlines.

Designers working on a smaller scale find it difficult first to contact fabric wholesalers, and second, to persuade them to sell small cuts of fabric necessary for a limited production. Susan Rainsford and Zonda Nellis have a creative approach to this problem. They weave their own fabrics.

Designers doing one of a kind fashions are often forced to obtain their

fabrics through a retail outlet rather than through wholesalers because they purchase very limited quantities. Several have wholesale contacts and one mentioned a mail order option, giving *Elegance* as an example (Charles Thompson, personal communication, October 9, 1986). Others have a different approach. Imy Brown and Sig Plach operate fabric stores along with their design businesses, giving their clients a stock from which to choose. Although Olga Borbely does not retail fabrics, she does maintain a supply of fabrics for her client's selection.

Markets. Once supplies are obtained and sample garments are produced, the designer faces the challenge of marketing the product. The problem again is with location. Major markets are located in Toronto and Montreal which with added costs of time and money, makes it more difficult for designers to compete with those from the two cities. However, Sharon Oakley, Meghan Gray, Selma Kuckmak, and Lucinda Jones felt that it was an advantage being a "foreigner" despite added costs. Buyers regard them as "different", "not one of the crowd" and almost as "imports".

Keys to Success

Although buyers may be interested in the "different" lines from these designers, they may not be interested enough to buy. Alan Einarson and Meghan Gray stated that many buyers tend to go with old and familiar names and hesitate to try someone new. According to Nina Sherwood and Julie Shilander, buyers from their city, Vancouver, tended to wait until the designer's names became familiar in central Canada before placing an order. Zonda Nellis and Lucinda Jones found that Canadian buyers became more interested in their fashions after the designers had become successful in the American market place.

Julie Shilander provided an explanation for buyer's reluctance to place orders with relatively unknown designers. Many new people are constantly entering the business, and local media quickly elevate them to star status particularly after the successful fashion shows. A demand is created for these fashions and orders are placed. Then for various reasons, including inexperience and late delivery of fabric, deadlines are not met. Once buyers are burned they are reluctant to take another chance, and stay with familiar names who have proved to be reliable. Sharon Oakley cautioned that designers have to be aware of their production capabilities, and take orders for only what they know they can produce. For example, if only 500 garments can be produced, it would be ridiculous to take orders for 1000.

Designers who do not deal with the wholesale market but who deal directly with clients also have to create a demand for their products and produce garments to meet the demand. Fashion shows provide exposure to individuals in the business, local media can be a positive

influence, and word of mouth is always a good and inexpensive form of advertising.

Because it may take several years for a designer to become established, some form of financing is essential. One solution is to keep the overhead low by starting in the home, then as the business expands, moving to a larger location (Ester Huget, personal communication, September 16, 1986). Others solve the problem by taking a second job (Susan Rainsford, personal communication, July 10, 1986; Julie Shilander, personal communication, November 16, 1986).

All of the designers emphasized that although financing was important, willingness to work long hours was even more essential. Many commented that educational programs do not always prepare the graduates for the reality of the industry. Work experience programs or practica arranged by the schools with the industry are beneficial in exposing the students to the actual job situation and in informing them of career opportunities other than design.

What should schools teach? According to Sheila Martineau, efficiency and

willingness to start at the bottom. Michele Mitchell added willingness to work and ability to meet deadlines. Sewing skills were important according to Ester Huget, Sig Plach and Charles Thompson. Dawn Bringeland and Lucinda Jones included marketing and management.

The career of a fashion designer may be glamorous and exciting but it involves long hours of hard work. Many designers head their own companies which means they have to manage a business as well as design. Being located away from the fashion centers of Toronto and Montreal creates the problem of distance to markets and suppliers. In spite of this, designers in the Maritime and Western Provinces are successful, enjoy their work, and have shared their secrets to success — hard work, financial backing, successful marketing, and delivering the goods on time. □

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Le comportement alimentaire des jeunes Québécois

Nicole A. Seoane

Résumé

Une enquête portant sur les habitudes alimentaires fut menée auprès de jeunes Québécois, âgés de 11 à 25 ans, en milieu scolaire. On constate qu'un plus grand nombre de jeunes déjeune aujourd'hui comparativement à l'époque de Nutrition Canada. Près de 50% de tous les repas consommés sont composés d'aliments provenant de 2 groupes ou moins du Guide alimentaire canadien. Exception faite de leur valeur énergétique, les aliments pris comme collations contribuent peu à la qualité nutritive du régime alimentaire. D'autre part, sauf pour les pommes de terre, les légumes sont les grands absents du régime alimentaire des jeunes. Le lait est leur boisson préférée. Seulement près de 10% des jeunes ont une consommation alimentaire conforme aux recommandations en ce qui a trait au nombre de portions par groupe d'aliments du Guide d'alimentaire canadien.

Revue canadienne d'économie familiale, Hiver 1988, 38(1), 25-29.

Abstract

A survey of food habits was conducted amongst Québec's youth, aged 11 to 25 years, in a school or college setting. More young people have breakfast today compared to a little more than a decade ago. Findings reveal that close to 50% of all meals were composed of foods chosen from less than three of the food groups in Canada's Food Guide. Although foods consumed between meals generally had little nutritional value, they do contribute to the daily energy requirement. The quality and quantity of snacks increased as the day wore on. Apart from potatoes, vegetables are notoriously absent in the dietary patterns observed. Milk is the stated preferred beverage. Only 10% of the dietary patterns complied with the portion number recommendations for the four groups in Canada's Food Guide.

Cet article fait état d'une étude menée auprès de jeunes Québécois par la Direction des politiques alimentaires du ministère de l'Agriculture, des Pêcheries et de l'Alimentation du Québec avec l'étroite collaboration des Cercles de Fermières du Québec. Cette enquête avait trois objectifs principaux:

- tracer le profil des habitudes alimentaires des jeunes Québécois
- déterminer leurs connaissances en alimentation

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Remerciements. Cette étude a été réalisée grâce à la précieuse collaboration de plusieurs intervenants dont: Madame Rose-Hélène Coulombe, les Cercles de Fermières du Québec, les directeurs, les professeurs et les élèves de divers établissements scolaires, Madame Suzanne Guérin de la Direction des politiques alimentaires, Monsieur Normand Goyette de la Direction des systèmes et de nombreux autres collaborateurs du ministère de l'Agriculture, des Pêcheries et de l'Alimentation du Québec.

- connaître certaines habitudes de vie des jeunes susceptibles d'affecter leur façon de s'alimenter.

Sont présentés dans cet exposé des résultats touchant le premier objectif. Une description détaillée de l'ensemble du projet se retrouve dans un autre document (Seoane et Coulombe, 1985).

Depuis l'enquête Nutrition Canada (Canada, Santé et Bien-être social, 1973), aucune étude d'envergure n'a porté sur les habitudes alimentaires des jeunes Québécois. Malgré l'existence de plusieurs études sectorielles (Beaudry-Darismé, Desaulniers-Drolet, et Provencher, 1977; Richard, Sévigny, et Roberge, 1984; Seoane et Roberge, 1983), les données touchaient des populations limitées et pouvaient difficilement être extrapolées à la population ciblée par les programmes de la Direction des politiques alimentaires. La Direction des politiques alimentaires a donc entrepris cette enquête afin d'obtenir des informations récentes sur les habitudes alimentaires des jeunes Québécois et ce, dans le but de bien adapter ses interventions aux besoins particuliers

des jeunes dans le domaine de l'éducation en alimentation.

Méthodologie

L'échantillonnage. La sélection de l'échantillon s'est déroulée en deux étapes. D'abord, les écoles invitées à participer à l'enquête ont été choisies au hasard à partir du "Répertoire des organismes et des écoles" (Québec, ministère de l'Éducation, 1983).

Ensuite, une classe complète d'environ 30 élèves a été sélectionnée dans chaque établissement participant. Le contact avec les écoles a été établi par une personne membre des Cercles de Fermières du Québec, selon un protocole déterminé.

L'instrument de mesure. La collecte des données s'est faite au moyen d'un questionnaire livret prétesté, composé de quatre sections: •une description du répondant (âge, poids, sexe...), •un journal alimentaire de trois jours, •un relevé de certaines habitudes de vie, et •un test de connaissances en alimentation et en nutrition.

L'analyse. Tous les aliments inscrits aux journaux alimentaires ont été

classés selon leur appartenance à 93 différentes catégories. Ces catégories ont été élaborées pour permettre de cerner des habitudes particulières (lait consommé comme boisson et lait dans les céréales...), de distinguer les aliments d'origine québécoise possible des autres aliments (pomme contre orange) et d'identifier les aliments de façon qualitative (aliment cru contre aliment cuit...). Divers regroupements de ces catégories ont permis de comparer les résultats avec des données publiées antérieurement (Canada, Santé et Bien-être social, 1977) et de faire des analyses qualitatives basées sur des normes recommandées (Canada, Santé et Bien-être social, 1982).

Tous les dossiers alimentaires ont été vérifiés, codés et soumis à la saisie des données et à l'analyse informatisée. Des analyses de fréquence simple et croisée furent effectuées et les résultats comparés à d'autres études.

Résultats et discussion

Effectif. Au total, 2 084 questionnaires ont été analysés. Le tableau 1 présente les répondants selon le degré de scolarité.

Un plus grand nombre de filles que de garçons a consenti à répondre au questionnaire. Cette situation est probablement due au fait que, traditionnellement, les filles se sont intéressées davantage à l'alimentation, thème principal de l'enquête.

La composition du repas et des collations. Pour cette partie des analyses, seule la première journée du journal alimentaire a été utilisée. Deux raisons ont motivé cette décision. D'abord, les recommandations du Guide se rapportent à la consommation alimentaire d'une journée, et non à la moyenne de plusieurs jours. De plus, des études antérieures ont démontré que les participants aux enquêtes nutritionnelles sont plus fidèles à tenir

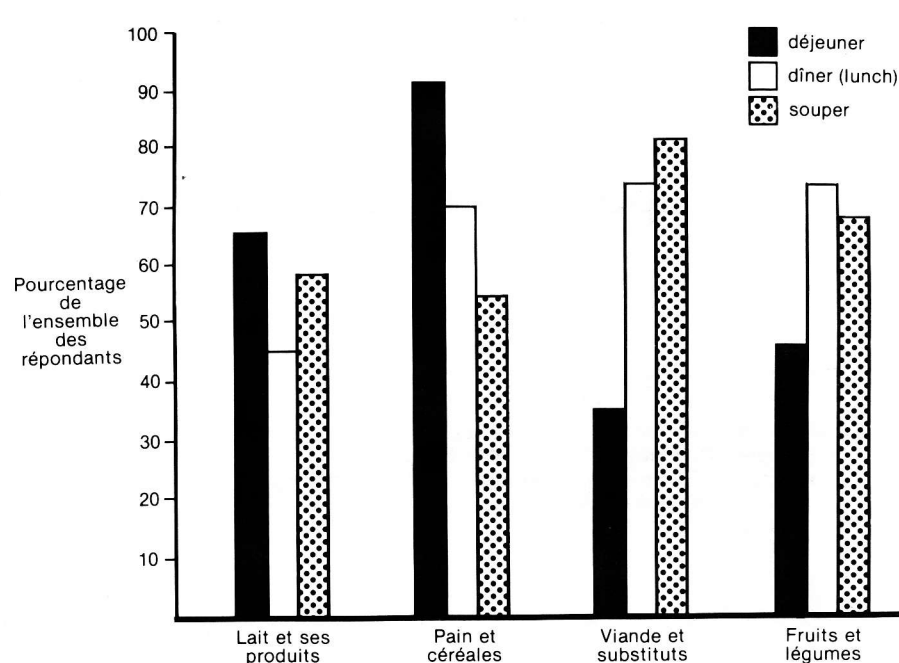


Figure 1. Présence des groupes du Guide alimentaire canadien aux trois repas.

les journaux alimentaires et que les données sont plus précises dans les premiers jours d'un relevé alimentaire s'échelonnant sur plusieurs jours (Todd, Hudes, et Calloway, 1983; Young, 1981).

La figure 1 nous démontre la présence des groupes du Guide aux trois principaux repas de la journée. On note certaines tendances dans la consommation de différents types d'aliments. Entre autres, la consommation de lait et de produits laitiers est moins importante au dîner, près de 55% des jeunes ne consommant aucun aliment de ce groupe. Le pourcentage de jeunes qui inclue les pains et céréales dans leurs repas diminue avec l'avancement de la journée, alors que l'inverse est noté pour les viandes et les substituts. Le nombre de jeunes consommant un aliment du groupe

des fruits et légumes est le plus faible au déjeuner et le plus élevé au dîner. Les tendances sont en général semblables pour les deux sexes, mais on note que proportionnellement plus de filles consomment des aliments du groupe des fruits et légumes, alors que c'est le contraire pour les trois autres groupes du Guide alimentaire canadien.

Une évaluation sommaire de la qualité des différents repas de la journée a été effectuée en se basant sur la présence ou l'absence d'aliments de chacun des quatre groupes du Guide alimentaire canadien.

Dans l'ensemble, 39,4% des jeunes ont consommé un bon **déjeuner**, c'est-à-dire un déjeuner comprenant des aliments d'au moins trois des quatre groupes du Guide (tableau 2). Même si, à première vue, ces résultats ne semblent guère encourageants, les données au tableau 3 démontrent clairement que beaucoup plus de jeunes Québécois déjeunent aujourd'hui comparativement à l'époque de l'enquête Nutrition Canada (Canada, Santé et Bien-être social, 1977). La consommation d'aliments au réveil est donc une habitude acquise chez bon nombre de jeunes. Les éducateurs en alimentation devront donc s'attarder à la promotion d'un déjeuner de bonne qualité, un déjeuner adapté aux goûts,

Tableau 1. Répartition de l'échantillon par sexe et scolarité

Sexe	Scolarité					CÉGEP	Total	%
	1	2	3	4	5			
Masculin	135	283	108	106	37	87	756	38,8%
Féminin	184	392	177	200	86	155	1 194	61,2%
Total	319	675	285	306	123	242	1 950 ^a	100%

^aCe total est inférieur au nombre total de participants. Les informations quant au sexe ou au degré de scolarité manquaient dans certains dossiers.

Tableau 2. Distribution des répondants (%) en fonction du nombre de groupes du Guide alimentaire canadien présents aux repas

Répondants	Repas	Nombre de groupes par repas				
		4	3	2	1	0 ^a
Tous	déjeuner	6,4	33,0	36,8	10,8	13,0
	dîner	12,0	40,9	25,5	8,2	13,4
	souper	12,6	38,0	32,7	7,6	9,1
Masculins	déjeuner	7,4	36,1	37,3	10,5	8,7
	dîner	12,2	44,7	25,4	6,8	10,8
	souper	13,7	38,3	32,1	9,2	6,6
Féminins	déjeuner	6,2	33,6	38,8	11,2	10,1
	dîner	12,8	41,1	27,0	9,7	9,4
	souper	12,7	40,5	35,1	7,0	4,6

^aInclut les dossiers où aucune consommation n'est notée ainsi que ceux contenant des aliments n'appartenant à aucun groupe particulier du Guide.

au rythme de vie et aux besoins nutritionnels des jeunes.

Les aliments les plus populaires au déjeuner sont, par ordre décroissant, le pain blanc, le lait, les garnitures sucrées, les céréales raffinées, les jus et les boissons aux fruits. Les préférences alimentaires des deux sexes au déjeuner sont semblables, sauf que les filles sont un peu plus nombreuses à consommer du fromage et des fruits et leurs jus, alors que les garçons sont plus nombreux à consommer des céréales et des oeufs.

Même si plus de 50% des jeunes prennent un bon **dîner** (tableau 2), on note une faiblesse marquée dans la consommation de légumes à ce repas. C'est surtout la pomme de terre que l'on privilégie sous forme de frites (9,6%) ou apprêtée de toute autre manière (13,2%) et seulement 18% des jeunes accompagnent le sandwich, mets préféré au repas du midi, de légumes crus. Après le sandwich, les aliments les plus populaires au dîner sont, dans l'ordre, les biscuits et les pâtisseries, les jus et les boissons aux fruits, le lait, les pommes de terre, les fruits, les mets "allongés" et les boissons gazeuses. Par rapport aux garçons, les jeunes filles mangent moins souvent des sandwiches et boivent moins de lait et de boissons gazeuses alors qu'elles consomment plus fréquemment les mets allongés, les légumes crus et les fruits et leurs jus ou boissons.

Ce repas est consommé à l'école, donc à l'extérieur du foyer par 48,6% des élèves du secondaire et par 24,4% des célestiens. La majorité des jeunes

se nourrissent à partir d'une boîte à lunch (63,7%), alors que près du tiers des répondants utilisent parfois les services de la cafétéria.

Notons enfin que près de 10% des jeunes sautent le repas du midi, ce qui constitue une augmentation par rapport à l'enquête Nutrition Canada (tableau 3). Si on ajoute à ce nombre les jeunes qui prennent un dîner composé d'aliments n'appartenant à aucun groupe du Guide, ou provenant de deux groupes ou moins du Guide, on constate que près de 48% des jeunes mangent un repas de faible qualité nutritive à l'heure du midi.

Au **souper**, seulement près de 50% des jeunes mangent un repas composé d'aliments provenant d'au moins trois

des quatre groupes du Guide alimentaire canadien (tableau 2). On peut s'interroger sur l'effet bénéfique de l'environnement familial au repas du soir, sur la qualité de la consommation alimentaire, spécialement pour ceux dont la préparation des repas est assurée par une autre personne (75%). Il appert que tous les jeunes, qu'ils préparent ou non leurs repas, bénéficieraient d'un enseignement axé sur les principes de base d'une alimentation équilibrée.

À ce repas, alors que la consommation de sandwiches a diminué par rapport au repas du midi (19,6% contre 48,7%), celle des mets allongés a presque doublé pour se situer à près de 25%. Malgré cette tendance, la viande est consommée davantage sous forme entière, c'est-à-dire non allongée. Après la viande entière, les aliments les plus populaires dans l'alimentation des jeunes sont, dans l'ordre, la pomme de terre, le lait, le pain blanc, les biscuits et les pâtisseries, les légumes cuits, les mets allongés, les sandwiches, les pâtes alimentaires, les jus ou les boissons aux fruits, et les boissons gazeuses.

On remarque une augmentation dans le nombre de jeunes consommant du lait et ses produits au souper comparativement au dîner; un plus grand nombre de jeunes boivent du lait au souper (41,9% contre 27,9% au dîner) alors que le nombre de jeunes consommant des jus ou boissons aux fruits a diminué. La plus grande variété de jus offerte en milieu scolaire, où le repas du midi est consommé par la

Tableau 3. Pourcentage des répondants qui consomment des aliments aux différents moments de la journée

Consommation alimentaire	Échantillons masculins			Échantillons féminins		
	Canada ^a	Québec ^a	MAPAQ ^b	Canada ^a	Québec ^a	MAPAQ ^b
Déjeuner	71	57	86 ^c	66	61	88 ^c
Collation du matin	34	45	23	35	40	29
Dîner	95	97	87	95	90	90
Collation de l'après-midi	69	78	44	71	78	52
Souper	91	90	89	94	94	93
Collation du soir	79	83	59	73	79	61
Taille de l'échantillon	1070	211	756	1162	251	1194

^aD'après les résultats de l'Enquête Nutrition Canada (1970-72).

^bLa présente enquête, ministère de l'Agriculture, des Pêcheries et de l'Alimentation du Québec.

^cLes dossiers en blanc sont inclus dans les calculs. Les pourcentages réels sont probablement légèrement supérieurs aux chiffres indiqués puisque un certain nombre de dossiers en blanc représentent un oubli dans la tenue du journal alimentaire plutôt que l'omission de repas.

plupart des répondants, explique probablement ces différences. La même proportion de jeunes prennent des boissons gazeuses au dîner et au souper, soit environ 12%. Tout comme au dîner, on note une faiblesse marquée dans la consommation des légumes. Peu de différences sont notées quant à la qualité de l'alimentation selon le sexe, sauf que les filles sont plus nombreuses à consommer des légumes cuits et crus et des mets allongés au souper.

La proportion de jeunes prenant une collation varie d'environ 25% à 60%, selon l'heure. Généralement, tant pour les filles que pour les garçons, les collations sont plus fréquentes en fin de journée comparativement au début (tableau 3). Cette tendance est la même que celle notée lors de l'enquête Nutrition Canada. Par contre, la proportion de jeunes qui collationnent a nettement diminué depuis cette première enquête, à la faveur d'un profil de consommation alimentaires plus traditionnel, c'est-à-dire à partir de trois principaux repas agrémentés d'un certain nombre de collations (tableau 3).

Le matin, la majorité des collations contiennent des aliments ne provenant que d'un groupe ou n'appartenant à aucun groupe du Guide alimentaire canadien. Ce sont les aliments du groupe des fruits et des légumes qui sont les plus populaires, et principalement la pomme que l'on retrouve dans 33% des collations du matin. Viennent ensuite, dans l'ordre, les biscuits et les pâtisseries de même que les sucreries (chocolat et bonbons) présents dans au moins 10% des collations. Notons que la majorité des jeunes qui n'ont pas déjeuné ne consomment aucun aliment à la collation du matin. La collation ne constitue donc pas pour eux un complément ou un remplacement du déjeuner.

En après-midi, 26% des collations contiennent des aliments exclus des groupes du Guide alimentaire canadien, c'est-à-dire des aliments qui ne sont pas essentiels à la santé, qui contribuent surtout à l'apport énergétique du régime alimentaire et qui peuvent avoir une teneur élevée en sucre et en sel. Malgré ce constat, notons que le pourcentage de jeunes Québécois ayant une consommation élevée d'aliments à haute teneur en sel et en sucre est inférieur à la moyenne canadienne (King, Robertson, et Warren, 1986).

Les aliments les plus populaires à cette collation sont les biscuits et les pâtisseries, les sucreries, la pomme et les autres fruits. Par ailleurs, les grignotises et les boissons gazeuses sont présentes dans environ 10% des collations, soit le double par rapport à la collation du matin.

En soirée, les collations sont plus nombreuses et plus substantielles. On note qu'il y a plus de collations composées d'au moins deux groupes du Guide à ce moment de la journée comparativement aux autres collations.

Pour certains, cette collation prend même l'allure d'un petit repas. Les aliments du groupe des fruits et des légumes sont les plus populaires, se retrouvant dans 38% des collations, suivis du groupe du lait et ses produits (34%), dont principalement le lait comme boisson. Les aliments dont la teneur en sucre et en sel peut être assez élevée et qui, dans certains cas, offrent peu de valeur nutritive, sont aussi très populaires: les grignotises (22%), les biscuits et les pâtisseries (21%), les sucreries (19%) et les boissons gazeuses (17%).

La qualité de l'alimentation pour la journée. Une évaluation de la qualité de l'alimentation pour l'ensemble de la journée a été effectuée en comparant les données de consommation quotidienne aux recommandations du Guide alimentaire canadien. Aux fins de la présente analyse, la limite inférieure a été utilisée dans le cas des trois groupes d'aliments offrant un choix quant au nombre de portions. De plus, seuls les dossiers des jeunes âgés de moins de 18 ans ont été retenus puisque les recommandations en regard de la consommation du lait change à l'âge adulte. À noter que dans

la présente étude, le mot "portion" est utilisé au sens large et signifie la présence d'un aliment à un repas ou une collation plutôt qu'une quantité précise de cet aliment, tel que spécifié dans le Guide. Le tableau 4 dénombre la proportion de jeunes qui consomment, dans une journée, trois portions de lait et produits laitiers, deux portions de viande, volaille, poisson et substituts, trois portions de pain et céréales et quatre portions de fruits et légumes.

On note que seulement près de 10% des jeunes ont une alimentation conforme aux recommandations du Guide alimentaire canadien et ce, sans avoir appliqué un critère de variété aux données alimentaires. Rappelons que ce guide, en plus de recommander le nombre et la grosseur de portions des aliments des quatre groupes, suggère de bien varier le choix d'aliments à l'intérieur de chacun de ces groupes. Les résultats de la présente étude sont nettement inférieurs à ceux d'une autre enquête récente (King, Robertson et Warren, 1986). Par contre, cette dernière basait l'évaluation qualitative de l'alimentation sur un questionnaire de fréquence et non sur les données du journal alimentaire. De plus, la consommation quotidienne était définie de façon assez large et exigeait que le répondant consomme "à peu près tous les jours des aliments de chacun des quatre groupes". Ces différences méthodologiques expliquent fort probablement les écarts notés dans les résultats des deux enquêtes.

Conclusion

Cette étude démontre bien la nécessité d'intensifier les efforts consacrés à l'éducation en alimentation et en nutrition auprès des jeunes

Tableau 4. Pourcentage des régimes alimentaires conformes à des recommandations^a du Guide alimentaire canadien

Groupe d'aliments	Tous les sujets R+C ^b	Sujets R ^b	Sujets masculins R+C	Sujets masculins R	Sujets féminins R+C	Sujets féminins R
les quatre groupes	9,2	3,1	11,0	4,4	9,1	2,5
lait et produits laitiers	41,5	30,2	45,3	34,0	42,0	30,1
viande, volaille, poisson et substituts	66,7	63,6	71,1	68,6	68,4	64,6
pains et céréales	45,7	37,7	52,8	43,9	45,0	36,5
fruits et légumes	43,1	27,9	38,8	24,4	49,2	32,0

^aLes recommandations utilisées sont celles ayant trait au nombre de portions par groupe d'aliments du Guide alimentaire canadien.

^bR+C = repas et collations; R = repas seuls.

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Groupe d'aliments	Tous les sujets		Sujets masculins		Sujets féminins	
	R+C ^b	R ^b	R+C	R	R+C	R
les quatre groupes	9,2	3,1	11,0	4,4	9,1	2,5
lait et produits laitiers	41,5	30,2	45,3	34,0	42,0	30,1
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afin d'améliorer la qualité de leur consommation alimentaire.

En plus d'insérer des thèmes d'alimentation dans les programmes d'études, les milieux scolaires devraient s'engager activement dans la formation de bonnes habitudes alimentaires en exigeant que les aliments vendus à l'école respectent les normes et les recommandations officielles en matière de saine alimentation. Les cafétérias, les casse-croûte et les distributrices en milieu scolaire deviendront ainsi des compléments à l'enseignement théorique. À cet égard, soulignons l'effort concerté des trois ministères québécois, soit ceux de l'Agriculture, des Pêcheries et de l'Alimentation, de l'Éducation et de la Santé et des Services sociaux, qui collaborent à l'élaboration d'une politique d'alimentation en milieu scolaire applicable à l'échelle de la province.

Sur le plan familial, par ailleurs, il serait souhaitable que les jeunes participent plus régulièrement aux tâches reliées à l'alimentation telles l'élaboration des menus, la préparation de la liste d'achats, les achats hebdomadaires d'aliments et la préparation

des mets. Ces activités pourraient à la fois éveiller la curiosité des jeunes face à leur alimentation, favoriser leur épanouissement en les rendant responsables de diverses tâches relatives à l'alimentation et les aider à développer certaines habiletés culinaires.

Les professionnels de l'alimentation et de la santé devraient intensifier leurs efforts afin de faire connaître aux jeunes les principes de base d'une alimentation équilibrée. À cet égard, le Guide alimentaire canadien est un outil précieux et indispensable. Puisque de saines habitudes alimentaires sont gages de meilleures perspectives de santé et de bien-être tout au long de la vie, il est essentiel que les professionnels interviennent à l'adolescence pour inciter les jeunes à adopter des comportements alimentaires sains. □

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Telephone Survey Techniques

Carol D.H. Harvey

Abstract

Use of the telephone for survey research data collection is gaining in popularity. Advantages and disadvantages of using the telephone to obtain data, in contrast to in-person and mail questionnaires, are given. Telephone interview techniques are discussed, including ethical practices, use of precontact letters, recommendations for preparing the questions and recording responses, and suggestions for telephone sampling. Current and potential uses of telephone interviewing by home economics researchers are presented.

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Résumé

Le sondage par téléphone pour récolter des données de recherche connaît une popularité croissante. On parle des avantages et des inconvénients de l'usage du téléphone comparé à celui des questionnaires faits en personne ou par courrier. On discute des techniques de sondage par téléphone, y compris le côté éthique des pratiques utilisées, de l'utilisation de lettres de préavis, des recommandations pour préparer les questions, et inscrire les réponses et les suggestions pour établir un échantillonnage. On y présente les utilisations actuelles du sondage téléphonique par des chercheurs en sciences familiales.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Telephone Surveys

Any instrument used for data collection by social scientists has to be selected on the basis of its strengths and weaknesses. Methodology research that compares two or three types of data gathering techniques generally concludes that each technique has advantages and disadvantages. Bradburn and Sudman (1980) "compared face-to-face, telephone, self-administered, and random response techniques for differing degrees of threat," and concluded "no one method is clearly superior to all others" (p. 167). Kitson and colleagues suggested that "few researchers tailor study methods to the information needed and the degree to which they wish to be able to generalize the results" (Kitson, Sussman, Williams, Zeehandelaar, Shickmanter, & Steinberger, 1982, p. 973).

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In this section, I will present the relative advantages and disadvantages of the telephone as an instrument for data collection, in comparison to mail questionnaires and in-person interviews. Other methods, such as observation, are excluded from this review because the data obtained can be quite different. In the case of an interview by mail, telephone, or in-person, analogous data may be collected and compared. Specific issues to be considered include: use of the telephone in modern society, preferences of the respondents and interviewers, and research needs. Research needs encompass costs, administrative concerns, reliability and validity, response rates, and use of sensitive questions.

Telephone norms. Modern societies have a series of norms for telephone usage, which are in operation when social scientists tap that medium. Frey (1983) suggested three norms are in operation whenever the telephone is in use, namely: (1) We are conditioned to respond to the telephone, rather than ignoring its ringing, and the first few sentences of the initiator of the call establish trust. (2) The initiator is the person who is supposed to end the conversation, and the respondent is unlikely to hang up. (3) Active participation is expected: one should not answer the telephone and then refuse to say anything else.

Frey's (1983) discussion of the norms did not include an indication of the conditions under which they apply. For example, compliance with the norm of not hanging up may be violated when the telephone is being used for soliciting product sales.

Telephone use by social scientists. The telephone has been used by researchers in the past primarily as supplemental to other data gathering techniques, such as to prod return of mail questionnaires, to arrange interviews, to screen for particular samples, to give advance notice of mail questionnaires, and to check non-respondents in mail questionnaires.

Today the telephone is being used as a major research collection technique. Methodology texts are including a section on telephone interviews, as illustrated by Chadwick, Bahr, and Albrecht (1984). Earlier methodology textbooks either omitted telephone interviewing techniques or were critical of the procedure. For example, Kerlinger (1973) stated that telephone interviewing has the advantage of speed and low cost and the disadvantage of not providing enough detailed information. The implication was the disadvantages outweighed the advantages. He did not provide documentation for his assessment.

According to Frey (1983), there are four reasons for social scientists

increasing their use of telephone interview techniques. First, there is widespread distribution of telephones, with 98% of U.S. households having phones. Second, researchers are developing methodologies specifically adapted to the telephone. Third, there is a lowered acceptance of traditional methods, particularly in urban areas where interviewers are reluctant to conduct face-to-face interviews in parts of the city or at particular times of the day. Fourth, researchers increasingly need immediate data retrieval with turn around in a matter of days (pp. 22-24). Telephones are distributed widely in Canada as well, with 98% having phones. The percentage varies somewhat by income level, ranging from 93% of people with annual incomes under \$10,000 having phones to 99% with incomes over \$25,000 (Statistics Canada, 1985).

Dillman (1978) stated telephone techniques will be the method increasingly selected by social scientists because costs are lower and respondents are more available than when face-to-face techniques are used. "Clearly the need for viable alternatives has never been greater, suggesting that the mail and telephone methods will see greater use regardless of the quality of results they produce" (p. 29).

In comparing telephone and face-to-face interviews, Groves and Kahn (1979) cited these advantages of telephone interviews: speed, access to subjects or topics not available by other methods, and lower costs. They suggested that both methods have comparative strengths, and to hold factors constant from one method to another in order to test the differences due to method is difficult. In a comparison of telephone interviews with other methods, Freeman and colleagues concluded that advantages outweighed disadvantages in using the telephone for interviewing disabled persons (Freeman, Kiecolt, Nicholls, & Shanks, 1982).

Respondent preferences. Groves and Kahn (1979) questioned respondents as to which method, telephone or in-person interview, was preferred. Results showed respondents tended to like the method used with them, but favored the in-person over the telephone interview (78% to 39%). In interpreting their results, Groves and Kahn offered the following: (a) Telephone interviews seem to be less

satisfying to respondents because of the lack of personal contact. (b) With an interviewer present, respondents may hesitate to say they do not like an interview method. (c) More people who like the mode, may volunteer for personal interviews, whereas the telephone gains access to a more reluctant sample (p. 89).

Interviewer preferences. Not only respondents but also interviewers have preferences as to mode of data collection. Bradburn and Sudman (1979) suggested that "interviewers who expect a study to be difficult should not be hired for that study" (p. 63). When they varied the training and level of sensitivity of the questions, Bradburn and Sudman (1979) found that the best success was from interviewers who were interested in and felt comfortable with a topic.

Research needs: Costs. It is on costs where telephone techniques are perceived to be superior. Dillman (1978) showed that costs are affected by a number of factors. These include the type of sample and geographic dispersion of it; differences in sample size; differences in the administration, such as interviewer time or long distance telephone rates; and differential access to resources by researchers, so that what is available to one may have to be purchased by another, such as telephones or typewriters (pp. 68-69). Groves and Kahn (1979) calculated the costs of the telephone at 45% of the cost of personal interviews (p. 211), largely due to lower travel and interviewer training costs with the telephone technique. Frey (1983) cited some of the same costs factors, and suggested that mail questionnaires are the least costly per respondent, telephone interviews are intermediate, and in-person interviews are the most costly (pp. 29-31). Dillman (1978) came to the same conclusion.

Research needs: Administrative. Several excellent chapters on administering telephone surveys have been published (*cf.*, Dillman, 1978; Frey, 1983; Groves & Kahn, 1979). In my view, Dillman's (1978) work is the most explicit guide. His directions encompass deciding how the sample is to be drawn, writing the introduction and precontact letter (if used), selecting respondents within a household, selecting interviewing facilities, recruiting and training interviewers, and scheduling interviews (pp. 232-281). Frey's (1983) chapter on the

administration of telephone interviews begins with a flow chart of administrative activities and is followed with a discussion of budgeting, determination of personnel needs, location of facilities, preparation of supply lists, supervision of interviewers, determination of printing and duplication needs, selection of sample size, and procedures for locating a sample. Groves and Kahn (1979) suggest a debriefing session for interviewers and their supervisors, to discuss all aspects of the survey.

Research needs: Reliability and validity. One advantage of the telephone technique is that the researcher may listen to the interviewer collect the data and provide direct and immediate feedback on interviewing techniques. This flexibility is difficult in face-to-face interviews unless they are taped. Frey (1983) recommended this procedure. He also favored using a central location so that interviewers could discuss their progress during breaks and could avoid the isolation felt by in-person interviewers.

Several sources have compared reliability of data obtained from telephone and other survey techniques. Klecka and Tuchfarber (1978) said, "It seems safe to conclude that [the telephone] is at least as accurate as the best alternative survey methods" (p. 113). In a mental health study, Aneshensel, Frericks, Clark, and Yokopenic (1982) concluded that differences between telephone and in-person interviews were few, and no differences were found "between the two methods in nonresponse to symptom items, preference to specific response categories, reliability, mean level of depression, or proportion classified as depressed. No significant interactions of mode of interview with sociodemographic characteristics were found" (p. 119). Jordan, Marcus, and Reeder (1980) found that a telephone sample had "more missing data on family income, more acquiescence, evasiveness, and extremeness response bias, and more and somewhat contradictory answers to checklist questions" (pp. 218-219). They concluded that the "quality of the data obtained over the telephone was not as good as that obtained in the face-to-face situation" (p. 219). Siemiatycki (1979) used a Montreal sample to compare mail and telephone contact to personal interviews and found that there were no differences in percen-

tage of non-sensitive questions answered using the different methods.

In addressing the validity issue, Siemiatycki (1979) stated that "home interview responses were no more valid than mail or telephone responses" (p. 244). With the increased cost of home interviews, Siemiatycki concluded that increased quality of home interviews was unjustified and that mail or telephone interviews were as useful as home interviews.

In comparing telephone and in-person interviews, Aneshensel and Yokopenic (1985) estimated parameters in a latent variable causal model. They tested the effects of age, sex, socioeconomic status, and illness on depression. The two methods showed highly comparable results. The models constructed with data from each interview method were nearly identical. This research goes beyond the usual comparison of descriptive results, and lends support to construct validity generated with either interview method. Further, the use of scales to measure depression suggests one can gather complex and sensitive data by telephone as well as in person.

Gelles (1983) discussed the use of telephone interviews for a study of child-snatching, wherein the non-custodial parent took the child against the will of the custodial parent. Gelles found that telephone interviewing elicited a higher response rate than personal interviews. Some sensitive topics are better discussed on the telephone than in person, according to Gelles. The social context of the telephone interview is such that others in the household do not hear the question and the respondent may be more truthful.

Bradburn and Sudman (1979) discussed the effects of a third party's presence in the collection of data by telephone. They suggested that some respondents may be more sensitive to this than others. For example, interviewing young adults when a parent can listen may affect responses.

Bradburn and Sudman also discussed the effect of the interviewer, suggesting that "interviewers do in fact frequently alter the working of the questions as printed in the questionnaire and add words or phrases of their own. Over one third of the questions were not read exactly as written" (p. 171). The effect of this alteration was not necessarily bad. In fact, expe-

rienced interviewers made more alterations than inexperienced ones. Experienced interviewers were better at establishing rapport and nonprogrammed speech may have enhanced development of rapport. The researchers were unable to demonstrate any effect of nonprogrammed speech on the quality of the data.

Research needs. Response rates. In calculating response rates, Kitson et al. (1982) suggested using response (completion) rate to include "the total number of eligible subjects . . . minus all incomplete interviews, regardless of cause, divided by the total number of eligible subjects" (p. 972). They defined refusals as "those among the actually contacted who refused to be interviewed, divided by the total number of eligible individuals contacted" (p. 972). Refusals are one group of people who do not participate. Other nonparticipants include those not at home, those who cannot be located, and those who are unable to respond due to language barriers and/or illness.

In interpreting the following response rates, the reader should keep in mind that methods of calculating rates varied. Dillman (1978) reported a response rate of 91% for 31 telephone surveys, a rate higher by 17 percentage points than mail surveys (p. 28). Groves and Kahn (1979) compared more than 200 questions by telephone and in person. They concluded that "few of the differences between the two modes are large enough to be statistically significant" (p. 118). They suggested that there are more missing data with telephone interviews. Frey (1983) ranked telephone with personal interviews and placed these ahead of mail surveys in response rates.

The Canada Labor Force Survey uses a telephone interview. Originally begun in urban areas, the survey was expanded to rural areas in 1982. Researchers found a "lower non-response rate for the telephone sample (3.4% versus 4.3% for the control sample)" (Singh, Drew, & Choudhry, 1984, p. 132). They further reported that only one percent refused to participate by telephone, and that estimates of labor force characteristics did not differ by method used.

Response rates for some specific populations may be lower when telephone techniques are used. For example, a person who is hard of hearing or who is not used to a telephone may be reluctant to be

surveyed by phone. These people may be found more frequently among the elderly. Some racial or ethnic groups may be less accessible by telephone, as shown by a lower proportion of blacks than whites who answered Aneshensel and Yokopenic's (1985) telephone survey.

The attitude of the interviewer has an effect on response rate (Oksenberg, Coleman, & Cannell, 1986; Schleifer, 1986). Oksenberg et al. showed that voice pitch, loudness, and rate affected respondents' beliefs about the attractiveness of the interviewer. Interviewers who were perceived as more attractive had lower refusal rates. Groves and Magilavy (1986) reported lower interviewer variability for the telephone method than for personal interviews. What variability existed had no significant effect on respondents by gender or education, but older respondents were more likely than younger ones to be susceptible to interviewer variability.

In sum, the advantages of the telephone survey include lower cost, more administrative control, ease of collection in urban areas, and faster rate of data collection. Its disadvantages seem to be more missing data and a lower response rate than with personal interviews, and lower rates of respondent preference for the mode. Reliability and validity compare favorably to other data collection methods.

Techniques of Telephone Research

Having considered the pros and cons of telephone methods, attention is now turned to specific procedures associated with telephone interviews. Here the social science community is experiencing rapid methodological developments, making the telephone method one which is experiencing change and growth. Topics covered in this section include: ethical practices, use of a precontact letter, wording of the interview schedule, recording methods, and telephone sampling.

Ethical practices. Ethical considerations are important when dealing with human subjects, and ethical treatment is needed when using a telephone to gather data. Professional societies and granting agencies have tended to follow the same ethical clearance procedures for telephone surveys as for other interviewing techniques. Ethical review committees at universities need to give approval to research

proposals using the telephone. As in other forms of interviewing, a respondent has the right to be fully informed about the research, to refuse to be interviewed, or to quit midway through the telephone interview. A pre-contact letter can assure the respondent of the legitimacy of the research. A disadvantage of the telephone technique is the party line. As Singh et al. (1984) mentioned, a party line does not permit confidentiality. In a study to compare two levels of assurance of confidentiality, Frey (1986) found no differences in response rates. That is, people who had ethical assurances were no more likely to answer freely than those who did not. These findings were comparable to other research on mail or face-to-face surveys, according to Frey (1986).

Precontact letter. Many researchers who use the telephone method have no precontact with the subjects; indeed, random digit dialing, explained below, would not allow a precontact letter. Frey (1983) and Dillman (1978) both gave examples of a precontact letter and cited its advantages as giving legitimacy to the telephone call. They stated that an individual respondent could make a more reasoned consideration of participation than would be the case when an interviewer's call is the first contact with the research. Precontact letters are useful when the sampling frame is known.

Informed consent, whether by a precontact letter or with the initial words of the telephone call, is an important aspect of gaining access to subjects. Singer and Frankel (1982) varied the amount of initial information given to potential subjects and examined the effect of information upon overall response rates, response rates to particular questions, and response quality. They found that the introductory variations had no effect on overall response rates and suggested that "researchers who provide more information about the interview do not incur a penalty" (p. 424). In relationship to the response on particular items and to response quality, interviewer variability was found. Since one interviewer typically does a large portion of telephone interviews in a given study, Singer and Frankel recommended careful interviewer selection and training. Interviewers also showed variability in completion rates, with experienced telephone interviewers having better success than inexperienced ones.

Wording of the telephone interview schedule. Since the telephone interviewer has to depend wholly upon the spoken word, researchers have made suggestions as to the best wording for the telephone interview schedule. Telephone interviews have to be shorter in total length than in-person interviews, and they have to have less complex questions. One method for complex questions is to use a "split" technique, wherein the respondent is routed through a complex issue in a series of questions. The split technique reported in Frey (1983) and Dillman (1978) is called "unfolding" by Groves and Kahn (1979). In the split technique, a respondent is asked to state a position on an issue. Depending upon the answer, a more specific question is then asked (Frey, 1983, p. 121). The researcher is freed from the necessity to use a large number of response categories, and acquiescence to the first item is avoided.

When testing a one-step version of a telephone interview to a two-step version, Miller (1984) found little difference in the two formats. He used a seven-category response format in the one-step version and a series of three responses in the two-step version. The one-step version had fewer responses of the most positive category, had less missing data, had higher intercorrelations, and was preferred by interviewers.

Order of questions on the schedule was considered by Dillman (1978). He suggested asking questions in an order that is understandable to the respondent and in a manner that will reduce respondent resistance.

Recording responses. In general, interviewers record answers in a similar manner for in-person and telephone interviews. One variation in the interviewer's method of recording the respondent's answers was tried by Groves and Mathiowetz (1984). They used Computer Assisted Telephone Interviewing (CATI), wherein the interviewer recorded answers on a terminal. The authors knew of twelve different systems functioning in the United States, and the one they used had the questions appear on a screen. The computer could "remember" respondent answers and supply subsequent questions based upon previous responses. With computer recording of free-response questions, there was a reduction of translation from the interview schedule to the computer. Results showed virtually no

differences in the response rates between CATI and non-CATI methods of recording answers. Interviews took somewhat longer using the CATI, which increased survey costs. Interviewer variability was lower using CATI, and there were fewer skip error problems. CATI techniques have been used by Statistics Canada to study traveller accommodation (Fraser, 1984).

Sampling. Sampling frames can be obtained in many different ways. With specialized populations, lists of the population may be available. For example, Dillman (1978) reported sampling from a professional organization; and in some research on widows, newspaper obituaries formed the basis of drawing the sample (Harvey, 1985).

In order to get a sample representative of the population of a society as a whole, the technique of Random Digit Dialing (RDD) has been developed for telephone use. In RDD the problem of unlisted telephones is eliminated, since all telephones have a possibility of being dialed. Frankel and Frankel (1977) gave three techniques for RDD; they also discussed five methods for selecting numbers from telephone directories. Satin (1983) reported upon the RDD technique used in a Canadian crime victimization study, in which an initial telephone screening was done, followed by incident reports of crime victimization. Satin suggested that there are problems with RDD, including getting telephone company co-operation, finding correspondence with geographic area with exchange prefixes, and having lower productivity rates in rural areas. Hofmann (1982) reported response rates at or near 80% in several Canadian cities for the crime victimization study.

Using RDD methods at the Survey Research Centre at the University of Montreal, Tremblay (1981) reported regional variations in the proportion of home numbers generated. Of the numbers dialed, Quebec had 62% residential; New Brunswick, 59%; Ontario, 58%; and Nova Scotia, 49%. These variations were due to differences in the tendency to fill prefix numbers. Thus, researchers must plan on a larger number of tries to reach respondents in some provinces than in others.

Orwin and Boruch (1982) suggested a technique which could be used in RDD to enhance privacy of responses. It involved a randomized statistical procedure, which could be adapted to

telephone techniques but has not yet been tried.

Unlisted or confidential phone numbers can be a difficulty in telephone interviews. Tremblay (1982) reported that 20% were unlisted in Montreal. In examining the characteristics of people with unlisted phone numbers, he found that they were likely to be renters and to live alone. Confidential listings were more common among separated or divorced people. He predicted an increase in the amount of unlisted and confidential phone numbers in the future, and suggested this difficulty will become more troublesome over time.

In sum, the techniques of telephone research have been perfected enough at this point to make it feasible. The authors cited provide readers with comprehensive information to conduct telephone interviews.

Use of Telephone Interviews by Home Economics Researchers

The extent of use of telephone interviews by home economics researchers has not been documented. Two sources of Canadian home economics research provide us with some indication of recent research where home economists might have employed telephone interviewing techniques. These sources are the Research Section of the *Canadian Home Economics Journal* and the annual conference of the Canadian Association for Research in Home Economics.

At the Canadian Association for Research in Home Economics annual meeting in 1986, members presented 20 papers. Not one of the researchers used the telephone as a means to gather data. Of the research presented, nine researchers could have used telephone survey techniques on such diverse topics as intergenerational relationships, product planning by clothing manufacturers, and use of automated teller machines by bank consumers.

The *Canadian Home Economics Journal* published 22 research articles in the years 1983-1986. During the 16 issues of that 4-year period, the questionnaire was the most popular method, used by 45% of the researchers. Historical or official records were used by 23%, interviews by 14%, laboratory by 9%, and field observation by 4%. The remaining 4% were literature reviews. Telephone interviews could have been used by 36% of the researchers: 6 of 10

mailed questionnaires and 2 of the 3 interviews could have used telephone techniques. From these two recent sources, it seems clear that home economists are doing research that is appropriate for telephone interviews, but that researchers, for whatever reasons, have used the more traditional methods of interviewing. Whether the researchers had considered but decided against using telephone data collection is not known.

Reasons for low use of telephone interviews may include a lack of familiarity with the technique, an awareness or concern for ethical considerations, and/or a lack of knowledge about its strengths and weaknesses.

Telephone techniques can be used effectively by home economists in their research. As in selecting any data collection technique, the researcher must be clear as to the method's appropriateness for the research questions, research time and budget limitations, and accessibility of the sample. For example, without the personal contact of an in-person interview, subjects may have to be approached somewhat differently to obtain participation rates comparable to those of the in-person format. Length of the total interview may have to be shortened, and visual cues are not available on the telephone. Training of interviewers has to be tailored to the technique. A pretest is advised, in order to ascertain that respondents and interviewers feel comfortable using the telephone as a primary data-gathering technique.

In Canada, with its multicultural mosaic, respondents also may use a language other than the official English or French. In order for the telephone technique to work effectively, bilingual or multilingual interviewers may have to be hired, which would entail extra expense of translation costs.

Gathering data by telephone could be used by home economists in conjunction with other data collection methods. For example, a nutritionist studying effects of ethnicity on dietary habits could collect ethnicity information by telephone and follow that interview with mail-out surveys or personal interviews for dietary intake.

The information outlined in this paper should be of use as home economics researchers assess the appropriateness of collecting data by telephone, and acknowledge the

advantages and disadvantages of this method for furthering exploration of current research in their areas of expertise. □

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Submit 3 copies of a 300-500 word abstract. DUE DATE: January 30, 1988.

Please direct correspondence to: Dr. Anne Selby, Dept. of Food, Nutrition, Consumer and Family Studies, Ryerson Polytechnical Institute, Toronto, ONT. M5B 2K3

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Pattern Making by Jeanne Powell and Carol Foley. (1987). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 398 pages; soft cover.

Pattern Making is designed by the authors as a comprehensive text that can be used from a beginning level through advanced pattern making. Basic methods of making particular garment sections are addressed and extensive illustrations are used for clarity to allow readers to interpret designs for their individual needs. This book would have value as a general reference book for pattern making, however, it has some shortcomings as a textbook.

More specific guidelines for dart manipulation as it relates to the individual figure would improve the content. Overall, the book treats the content too simplistically. In many sections significant detail is omitted. An elongated bodice approach is used to develop various designs. The successful fit of these designs would likely be more satisfactorily accomplished by using a sheath pattern. Only the "slash method" of pattern making is used. For use as a text the "pivot method" would be a desirable inclusion.

The book deals only with projects in women's apparel but does cover a wide range of individual pattern elements. These include bodices, necklines and facings, button closings,

collars, sleeves, skirts and pants. The book format does not require use in a sequential order, units can be used separately.

Reviewed by:
Linda M. McKay, MSc
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Windsor Ontario

Smart Cooking by Anne Lindsay. (1986). Toronto: Macmillan of Canada, 248 pages; softcover \$14.95.

Smart Cooking: Quick and Tasty Recipes for Healthy Living was published in cooperation with the Canadian Cancer Society. This is more than a cookbook. It is a practical guide to assist in the implementation of the Dietary Guidelines developed by the Canadian Cancer Society. An extensive Introduction presents the rationale behind the Guidelines and contains practical advice concerning cooking methods, eating out, and menu planning.

The recipes were developed to conform to the Dietary Guidelines. They stress use of foods low in fat, salt and sugar, high in fibre and rich in vitamins A and C. Each recipe is preceded by a brief introduction outlining possible menu uses. Calories and grams of fat per serving are listed for every recipe. Recipes also are rated as good or excellent sources of fibre and a variety of vitamins and minerals. Throughout these sections, the margins contain line drawings plus many food preparation hints, diet tips, menu suggestions, and recipe alterations. Several tables are included which compare fat and fibre contents of many foods. Also included are 16 full-page color photographs of prepared recipe items.

The book contains seven appendices. These deal with recommended energy intakes, methods to calculate the ideal amount of fat needed per day, and the fat, energy and fibre contents of many foods. Lists of recipes which were rated as excellent sources of fibre,

vitamin A and vitamin C are found in this section, also.

Perhaps the only drawback, while minor, is the binding. If coilbound, the book would lie flat more readily.

This is an excellent cookbook and guide for any person interested in adopting healthier eating habits. As well, it will serve as a practical reference for professionals teaching nutrition principles to groups or individuals.

Reviewed by:
Laurie A. Wadsworth, MSc
Public Health Nutritionist
Yorkton, SK

Nutrition in Perspective by Patricia A. Kreutler and Dorice M. Czajka-Narins. (2nd ed.), (1987). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall Inc., 519 pages; \$39.25.

This text is divided into two parts: *Scientific Principles of Nutrition*, which present the fundamental biological and chemical aspects regulating the metabolism of nutrients in the body, and *Nutrition for Everyday Living*, which emphasizes the changing nutritional needs throughout the human life cycle, and the implications of the external environment on food choices. Topics of contemporary concern are highlighted for each class of nutrients in the context of current scientific knowledge as "Perspectives", such as Diet and Heart Disease and Vegetarianism in the chapters presenting Lipids and Protein, respectively. Each chapter ends with a comprehensive summary and a list of pertinent references. The appendix contains a section on the basic concepts of chemistry and biology, a glossary of terms, and metric conversion factors, as well as the usual exchange lists for meal-planning, tables of nutrient values of food, and dietary standards. Unfortunately, the outdated 1974 version of the Dietary Standard for Canada is included.

The second edition, like the first edition, is scientifically accurate. It has been updated by revision and/or expansion of the more scientific aspects of nutrients, such as an explanation of the role played by omega-3 and omega-6 fatty acids in lipid metabolism, and by more concise discussion on the more applied aspects of each nutrient. Deletion of, and reduction in, the size of Tables and Figures also has helped reduce the second edition by approximately 100 pages.

This concisely and clearly written text should be valued by the serious student of nutrition. It will provide a sound grasp of the scientific aspects of nutrition and application in everyday situations, as well as an appreciation of the controversial issues in nutrition and preparation for evaluating nutritional claims.

Reviewed by:

Patricia M. Giovannetti, PhD
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Looking After The Future: An Up-to-Date Guide to Pension Planning in Canada by Patrick Longhurst & Rose Marie Earle. (1987). Toronto: Doubleday Canada Ltd., 175 pages; softcover \$12.95.

Ignorance may be the greatest barrier to achieving financial security in retirement. Longhurst and Earle's easy-to-read guide to pension planning provides the reader with a means of understanding the Canadian pension system and assessing one's own financial planning for retirement. The guide thoroughly examines retirement planning as an integration of three areas: government programs, private pension plans, and personal savings. Throughout the discussion of government programs, new CPP legislation is accurately cited and explained in a clear, concise manner.

Patrick is a consulting actuary with a Toronto firm, where Rose Marie Earle is a communications consultant. As such, the authors are well qualified to discuss technicalities of the pension system and they do so in a manner that is interesting and informative, with the use of a case study as a means of explanation.

Nearly three-quarters of the book is dedicated to a detailed analysis of private pension plans. Many potentially confusing issues are clarified. The differences between the two types of pension plans, the impact of inflation, vesting, contributions to the fund, and payments are some of the topics that are covered in detail. A commendable job is done in recognizing the specific problems that concern women in pension planning.

Looking After the Future includes a final section on personal savings which encourages the reader to follow a step-by-step process to determine the adequacy of their current retirement plans and assess their needs in order to meet their goals in retirement. The book includes two useful appendices. One delineates current legislation and major proposed changes for company sponsored, defined-benefit plans according to province. The other provides addresses of the provincial pension commissions for those readers with inquiries.

The advice presented throughout the guide is sound and down-to-earth and raises the reader's awareness of the financial requirements in the retirement years. The authors' use of simple, everyday language, ensures that the average employee, to whom the information is directed, will be aided in overcoming the ignorance that might otherwise jeopardize a financially secure retirement.

Reviewed by:

Sally Massey, BHEC
Winnipeg, Manitoba

Splint Woven Basketry by Robin Taylor Daugherty. (1986). Loveland, Colorado: Interweave Press, 160 pages; \$15.00.

Basketmaking is one of man's oldest crafts, even preceding cloth weaving and pot shaping. In all probability, the first baskets were created by primitive man to transport, protect, prepare, or cook food. Contemporary basketmakers, while incorporating the traditional styles and techniques of their predecessors, have not only created a distinctive and beautiful tradition of American basketry but also have taken the craft from producing functional containers to an innovative art form.

Although baskets may be produced by coiling, twinning, weaving or

plaiting, the focus of this book is on the splint-weaving technique. Woven baskets made from splints can be divided into three categories: ribbed, plaited, or spoked. All three types are dealt with in this book.

The author begins with a chapter entitled, 'Getting Ready', which deals with materials, where to look for interesting natural grasses, how to prepare and store them, and what tools and equipment are needed.

Good illustrations with clear instructions enable this book to be used as a teacher's manual. Each section begins with a basic technique described in step-by-step detail including a checklist of materials and tools. The beginner would have no trouble following the well explained procedures, while the advanced weaver would find the subsequent, more complicated designs, a challenge.

The author makes this book more interesting than the usual how-to manual by including in the description of each basket the country of origin and the practical use for which it was designed. For example, she claims the twin-bottomed egg basket originated in Great Britain, probably Scotland, and was most commonly used for gathering, storing, and transporting eggs to market. Its shape lends itself to be comfortably carried on a person's hips or an animal's back. The book is further enhanced with many photographs of baskets created by the author.

The final chapter includes a section on finishing touches. These are what add personality to each basket. The basket's uniqueness can be achieved by a variety of weaves, embellishments, handles, rims, bases, or lids. Colouring and dyeing of materials for added eye appeal, plus a section on the finish and care of baskets is included. A glossary of terms, a bibliography of books and magazines, and a list of suppliers complete this interesting manual.

Reviewed by:

Doreen Kelly, BHEC
Housemother, Villa Rosa
Winnipeg, Manitoba

Stepmothers: Exploring The Myth by Kati Morrison and Airdrie Thompson-Guppy with Patricia Bell. (1986). Ottawa: The Canadian Council on Social Development, 126 pages; \$14.95 or Paperback \$7.95.

The authors, a psychiatrist and a

social worker, who are themselves stepmothers, observed increased stepfamily "casualties" in their work, which prompted them to write this book. They had discussions with about 300 stepfamilies, from which many of the examples in the book were drawn. Although the book is addressed primarily to stepfamilies, educators and counselors may find the recommendations for stepfamilies and their extended family members at the end of each chapter and the annotated bibliography informative and useful.

The book offers convincing evidence that the image of the *wicked stepmother* is a myth. However, some descriptions of what stepmothers are really like were so idealistic that one questions their validity. It was pointed out even though stepmothers are expected by the legal system and societal attitudes

to have many responsibilities for stepchildren, including care, nurturing, and financial support, they have few rights. Stepmothers become frustrated and even bitter because of the complexity of the role and common unrealistic expectations.

A reoccurring theme of the book is that stepparents cannot replace caring relatives, especially natural mothers. The mistake many remarried adults make is to expect all members of their respective previous families to unite in love and acceptance. Stepfamilies are not nuclear families and they cannot be expected to behave in the same way nor should they be treated by the outside world as a nuclear family. In other words, stepfamilies and stepparents are unique and they should be treated through the support of extended family and other parts of

society as a major alternate family form.

Some practical tips for coping with residential arrangements, visiting arrangements, discipline, holidays, and other special events are presented. The book ends on a positive note about some of the rewards stepmothers can expect to realize.

To summarize, this book stimulates one to take the stepmother's perspective and to realize that these women take on a complex role that requires much effort that deserves a great deal of credit.

Reviewed by:

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Abstracts of Current Literature

Family/Consumer Studies

College females' perceptions of adult roles and occupational fields for women.

Bridges, J.S. (1987)
Sex Roles, 16(11/12), 591-604.

This study investigates the impressions that college women have of two related issues, women's maternal and career roles. It also examines the effects of occupational sex dominance. Previous studies have shown that many college men and women do not feel that combining the roles of career, spouse, and parent poses great difficulty. Many college women try to achieve a lifestyle of multiple roles. This investigation examines 4 female married roles, wife only, wife/career, wife/mother, and wife/career/mother. Three hundred and twenty-two female introductory psychology students were tested. They were given a booklet containing a paragraph and questions. Each booklet depicted one of 24 stimulus persons, varying in maternal role (mother/nonmother), career role (full-time worker or non-worker) and in sex-dominance occupation (female dominated, male dominated and sex neutral). In the short paragraph, all aspects of the women were constant except for these 3 factors. The students' results revealed that they felt there would be greater rewards for mothers than non-mothers and for workers more than non-workers. Sex role literature refers to instrumentality as being masculine and expressiveness to be feminine. Non-working mothers are seen as more expressive than working mothers. Women in female-dominated careers were also viewed as more expressive than those in male-dominated jobs. The two significant effects were, that the students are more attracted to mothers than non-mothers and to working women as opposed to non-working women. Of the varying roles seen, the wife only was depicted as being the least attractive and the wife/mother/career as the most attractive. The college students did not perceive role problems for the wife/mother/career and the wife/mother roles as a career role problem, which is a misconception. Occupational sex dominance affects the perception of more women in nontraditional, non-mother roles. The data reveals that college women have an accurate impression of career and maternal roles, but that they are unrealistic in their impression of the possible conflict and strain brought on with a career role.

The increase in the usual life span in North America.

Kraus, Arthur S. (1987)
Canadian Journal on Aging, 6(1), 19-32.

There are several weaknesses in the measure "maximum life span", that makes the "usual life span" (ULS) a more practical measure. The maximum life span is based on

extremes and rarities. This makes the ULS, defined as the age to which only 1.0% of birth cohort survives, a better measure. Data, from the period of 1960 to 1980, was collected for Canadians and Americans from the census, age-specific mortality rates, statistics on death at advanced ages, and from Canadian life tables. There is evidence that the ULS has increased by at least 2 years during this time period, with a greater increase for females and lesser increase for males. A probable factor contributing to this is the prevention or delay of chronic diseases, such as coronary heart disease. This increase in the ULS should raise the importance of health awareness and disease prevention.

The continuing role of physical attractiveness in marriage.

Margolin, L., & White, L. (1987)
Journal of Marriage and the Family, 49, 21-27.

This study examines the effects that declining physical attractiveness due to aging, has on a marriage. Previous studies have shown that men place more emphasis on such characteristics as weight and body shape, while women concentrate more on warmth and honesty. Data was collected from a nation-wide sample interview done in 1980 and again in 1983. In the sample of 1509 individuals used for this study, there was no one over 55 years of age. The 45 minute telephone interviews were conducted. This sample represented people of different religions, races, ages, and presence of children. The main hypothesis of this study was that men are more affected by declining physical attractiveness in their marital sexual relationship, than women. Loglinear techniques are used to examine this hypothesis. More sexual problems in marriage were reported by men, who felt that their wives' attractiveness was declining, but not their own. No such trend was found in the women. The age of the spouses and the length of marriage did not have any significant effect on this trend. The economic status of the couple was also independent of the importance of the wife's appearance. The conclusions supported the hypothesis that the relationship of physical attractiveness and marital sexuality is much stronger for men than it is for women.

Effects of maternal absence due to employment on the quality of infant-mother attachment in a low-risk sample.

Barglow P., Vaughn, B.E., & Molitor, N. (1987)
Child Development, 58, 945-954.

This study analyses the effects on the infant-mother relationship when the mother returns to employment, less than a year after the birth of her child. Research has shown

that nonmaternal care provided after the infant is 2 years of age, does not effect the infant's intellectual or emotional development. However, the infant-mother relationship may be affected if substitute care is provided before the first year. Subjects used in this study were 110 infant-mother pairs and all of middle to upper-middle class socioeconomic status. The mothers completed questionnaires and surveys, concerning psychological and temperamental characteristics, as well as their attitude toward motherhood and child rearing. There were 2 groups consisting of "At-home" and "At-work" mothers. To qualify in the "At-work" group, the mothers had to resume work and initiate substitute care by the time the infant was no older than eight months old. When the infants were 1 year of age, all the pairs were evaluated with the Ainsworth Strange Situation procedure. The infants behaviours were recorded. A considerably larger percentage of the infants in the "At-work" group were classified as insecure-avoidant, when compared to the "At-home" group. It is suggested by this data that daily separations during an infant's first year of life may be a risk factor in the development of the infant-mother relationship.

Supplementary listing of articles

- A Longitudinal analysis of divorce and suicide in Canada.** Trovato, Frank. (1987). *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 49, 193-203.
- When is a parent out of the picture? Different custody, different perceptions.** Isaacs, M.B., Leon, G.H., & Kline, M. (1987). *Family Process*, 26, 101-110.
- Family issues in multigenerational households.** Feiauer, L., Lund, D.A., & Miller, J.R. (1987). *The American Journal of Family Therapy*, 15, 52-61.
- Behavior of young children with Down Syndrome before the mirror: Exploration.** Loveland, K.A. (1987). *Child Development*, 58, 768-778.
- Childfree by choice.** Olson, Lotta, R., & Pilon, S. (1987). *Humanist in Canada*, 81, 16-19.
- The empty nest: The silent invasion on two fronts.** Wise, W., & McBride, Murray, V. (1987). *Journal of Home Economics*, 49-53.

Submitted by:
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Food/Nutrition

Factors that influence the outcome of pregnancy in middle-class women.

Mitchell, M.C., & Lerner, E. (1987)
Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 87, 731-735.

A retrospective study was made of 1080 singleton pregnancies of middle-class women to determine factors that influence pregnancy outcome. Study variables included maternal age, parity, socioeconomic status, initial weight for height, maternal weight gain, obstetrical history, hemoglobin, hematocrit, smoking, and alcohol use. Pregnancy outcome was measured in terms of gestational age, birthweight, Apgar scores, and incidence of medical complications.

Mean age of women at delivery was 26.3 years. Mean initial weight for all subjects was 102% \pm 35% of the midpoint of the 1983 Metropolitan height/weight tables. Weight gain ranged from a loss of 17 lb to a gain of 61 lb with a mean gain of 18.7 lb \pm 8.39.

Mean gestational age was 39 weeks \pm 1.7 with a mean birth weight of 7.13 lb \pm 1.14. Medical complications occurred in 16.5% of infants and 12.0% of mothers.

Length of gestation increased significantly with higher initial weight for height and higher rankings for occupation of the husband. A similar direct relationship was revealed between birth weight and both occupational category and initial weight for height. For underweight women (< 90% of standard), birth weights were significantly higher when weight gains exceeded 120% of the National Research Council recommendation of 24 lb. Normal weight women who gained 55% to 79% or more than 120% of standard, gave birth to infants with significantly higher weights. For obese women (135% of standard), birth weights were not found to increase with maternal weight gain. For these women, maximum birth occurred with a maternal weight gain of 13 to 19 lb.

In this study, birth weights decreased with decreases in initial and final hemoglobin levels and initial hematocrit levels. As well, maternal smoking was negatively correlated with birth weight. This study found smoking was positively correlated with alcohol consumption. Older mothers were more likely to smoke and drink more alcoholic beverages than other women.

Nutrient intake of women and school children in northern Manitoba Native communities.

Sevenhuysen, G.P., & Bogert-O'Brien, L.A. (1987)
Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association, 48, 89-93.

The nutritional status of 143 grade four and six school children and 73 non-pregnant, non-lactating women was assessed in five northern Manitoba communities. During the autumn of 1981, 24-hour diet recalls and demographic data were collected from all subjects. A non-fasting blood sample was obtained from the children. All subjects were of native ancestry. The mean age for grade four children was 10.0 years, for grade six children, 11.9 years and for women, 33.3 years.

For children, the biochemical indices for iron, vitamin A, vitamin C status were not indicative of deficiencies. Recommended amounts of vitamin A were consumed by only 39% of the students. Below recommended levels of calcium and energy were consumed by 35% and 65%, respectively. A school supplement program seemed to be an important source of calcium and vitamin A in the student's diets.

Between 51% and 54% of the women surveyed reported consuming less than 70% of the Recommended Nutrient Intake for calcium, iron, and vitamin A. Reported energy intakes were below 70% of the RNI for 40% of the women.

The authors concluded that vitamin A and calcium status are concerns in northern Manitoba for both women and children. As well, the risk of deficiency may be greater at the end of the winter season than was found in the fall.

Assessment of the nutrition education needs of preschoolers' mothers in the Regina Rural Region.

Misskey, E. (1987)
Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association, 48, 163-165, 168-171.

The nutrition education needs of 54 mothers and their three-year-olds were assessed in terms of the childrens'

eating patterns, the mothers' perceptions, food-related practices, and knowledge of Canada's Food Guide. Data was gathered during a 90-minute home interview conducted in 1981. A three-day diet recall for the children was provided by mothers. Total reported quantities were translated into frequencies of intake and assigned a score based on an eating plan for preschoolers adapted from Canada's Food Guide. Data was also collected on childrens' eating patterns related to snacking, eating away from home, seasonal differences, and nutrient supplements. Mothers were asked to rate the degree to which they felt they needed nutritional information for 20 topics. Finally, a nutrition knowledge test of 24 true/false items was administered to mothers.

Of the participants, 50% lived on farms and 50% lived in towns. The mean age of mothers was 28 years. Some form of post-secondary education was possessed by 47% of the women. Almost all children consumed milk in some form with the majority using it as a beverage or on cereal. More children consumed meat, fish or poultry than consumed meat alternates. No dark green, yellow or orange vegetables were consumed by 24% of the children over the three reported days. Sweetened baked products and candy were consumed by up to 67% and 33% of the children, respectively. Seven percent of children's total intake scores fell below 70% of the total distribution. About one-quarter of the scores in the milk and milk products group were in the lower half of the score range.

Snacking was a major part of eating patterns with 89% of children eating between at least two meals on each of the three studied days. Sixty-eight percent of children ate away from home on average of at least once a week. Supplements were provided to 76% either on a year-round or seasonal basis.

Topics identified as high education needs by mothers covered a variety of concepts from Canada's Food Guide. Additional topics listed by mothers included a need for recipes (27%), effects of additives (19%), nutrient content of food (19%) and snacking (18%). Half of the mothers showed interest in attending food and nutrition related classes if offered within the community. Nutrition knowledge scores of mothers were low with a mean of 13.5 out of a possible 24.

Recommendations for nutrition-related parent education are outlined. Emphasis on milk and milk products as an important calcium source was suggested. The need to stress the importance of fruits and vegetables, especially those high in carotene, continues. The need to encourage mothers to limit the amount of nutritionally and dentally poor snacks exists. The author stated a need for mothers to receive guidelines concerning coping methods for common toddler feeding problems and the amount of food required by a preschool child.

Subjective and objective evaluation of meat from turkeys differing in basting and final internal cooking temperature.

Poste, L.M., Moran, Jr., E.T., Butler, G., & Agar, V. (1987)
Canadian Institute of Food Science Technology Journal, 20, 89-93.

The effect of commercial basting and final internal breast temperature on the cooked turkey yield, fat and moisture content and sensory characteristics was evaluated for 24 carcasses. The four treatments for sensory evaluation consisted of non-basted, 85°C; non-basted, 95°C; basted

85°C and basted, 95°C. Eleven trained panelists were presented with sliced breast and thigh muscles for each treatment. Meat was evaluated for flavor, tenderness and juiciness using a 15 cm line scale with anchor point descriptors 1.5 cm from each end. Free moisture analysis and Warner-Bratzler shear measurements were conducted on the white meat only.

No significant differences in evaporation or jelly were observed for basting, but significantly higher drip and fat losses were found. The 95°C turkeys showed increased evaporation and fat losses, as well. No significant differences were revealed for the sensory ratings of cooked turkey appearance for either temperature or basting. Sensory scores for white meat indicated that basted birds had more intense flavor, were juicier and more tender. The 95°C turkeys were found to be significantly less juicy and less tender than the 85°C turkeys. No significant differences were uncovered for dark meat due to either basting or temperature.

Free moisture results indicated no significant effects due to basting. The 85°C turkeys had more free moisture than the 95°C turkeys. Warner-Bratzler shear measurements were not affected by basting or temperature.

Even though overcooked, basted turkeys had comparable or better eating quality than the optimally cooked non-basted turkey. Thus, commercial basting may be compensating for overcooking.

Supplementary listing of articles

Nutritional support of successful reproduction: An update. Worthington-Roberts, B. (1987). *Journal of Nutrition Education*, 19, 1-10.

Nutrition and metabolism in spaceflight. Altman, P.L., & Talbot, J.M. (1987). *Journal of Nutrition*, 117, 421-427.

Underestimation of relative weight by use of self-reported height and weight. Stewart, A.W., Jackson, R.T., Ford, M.A., & Beaglehole, R. (1987). *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 125, 122-126.

Contribution of some fast food meals to the daily intake of pantothenic acid and biotin. Hoppner, K., & Lumpi, B. (1987). *Canadian Institute of Food Science Technology Journal*, 20, 173-175.

The WHO Code and its effect on breast-feeding promotion in hospitals. Sauve, R.S. (1987). *Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association*, 48, 156-162.

Biological and sociocultural determinants of successful lactation among women of eastern Connecticut. Ferris, A.M., McCabe, L.T., Allen, L.H., & Pelto, G.H. (1987). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 87, 316-321.

Submitted by:
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Textiles/Clothing

The comfort of clothing.

Smith, Julia. (1986)
Textiles, 15(1), 23-27.

The importance of studies on clothing comfort has grown with the current increase in public awareness of fabric's fiber content, and popularity of leisure and sport activities. This article summarizes current views and research on comfort and draws interesting conclusions. The article distinguishes two major types of discomfort: (a) psychological discomfort, such as when the clothing worn is inappropriate to the

individual or the situation and (b) physiological discomfort, such as when the body feels physically uncomfortable. Aesthetics, handle, fit, suitability for end use, and past experiences with similar fabrics of styles are all considered in terms of physiological and/or psychological discomfort when a consumer purchases a new garment. Several means of assessing clothing comfort have been developed, two of which are described in this article: (a) a public questionnaire devised by the Shirley Institute in 1984, and (b) extensive wearer trials, thought to be the most accurate method of assessing comfort. Both tests conclude the importance of fabric aesthetics in creating the right garment image. In response to this image an association of the fabric to a past experience will influence the wearer's judgment of garment comfort. Results also conclude that certain fabric properties and garment styles can cause negative sensations, their type depending on the garment's end use. An awareness by fabric and garment designers to the rising public demands for clothing comfort, and a growing scientific interest in defining comfort have resulted in current research aimed at helping designers and manufacturers accurately predicting the comfort/discomfort properties of their products.

Dress and physical attractiveness of women in job interviews.

Johnson, K., & Roach-Higgins, Mary Ellen. (1987)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 5(3), 1-7.

A large body of research indicates that physical attractiveness affects people's first impression of others, inferring the more attractive individuals have an advantage in situations such as job interviews. Further studies suggest this preference disappears when women are considered for a male dominated job.

This study investigated the influence of dress, physical attractiveness, job type (male or female dominated) and subject's sex on impressions subjects formed about the personality of females applying for either a male or female dominated job. Serving as subjects were 300 male and female college campus recruiters. They received a questionnaire with an applicant's photograph attached and were then asked to rate the applicant on 26 personality characteristics using a five point scale. Data was subjected to factor analysis, analyses of variance, and the Scheffe test. Results concluded the applicant's dress influenced the subject's impression. The physical attractiveness of the applicant, type of job, and sex of the subject, had an insignificant effect on the ratings. These findings suggest the subject attempted to use concrete information about the applicant, exemplified by dress, rather than using innate factors to assess the applicant's personality.

The progressive deterioration of textile materials. Part II: A comparison of abrasion testers.

Slater, K. (1987)
Journal of the Textile Institute, 78(1), 13-25.

Abrasion, as defined in this Canadian study, is a progressive loss of minute fiber particles as a result of continuing frictional contact with other surfaces. As it is so pervasive and acts on all fabric types it is an important factor in fabric degradation and of importance to textile researchers.

In this study textile abrasion is investigated by comparing four different modes of abrasion testing and machines typical of them. Samples of cotton, wool, polyester, and nylon fabrics are abraded on each machine. The first test applies abrasion to the fabric surface at random points. The Accelerotor is typical of this form of degradation. The second method applies abrasion uniformly at all points, in all directions on the sample's surface. A common tester for this abrasion form is the Schiefer tester. The third technique involves localized abrasion on a specific region of the sample's surface, as produced in the Taber Abrader. The final method involves tensile loading of the sample as abrasion takes place. The Stoll tester produces this form of abrasion. The difference in techniques produced significantly different results, making it possible to select a specific type of abrasion tester best suited to specific situations and desired form of degradation.

Light and heavy catalog shoppers of clothing.

Smallwood, V., & Wiener, J. (1987)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 5(3), 25-29.

Catalog shopping is a growing phenomena but little is known of the identity of catalog shoppers. The purpose of this study was to identify and contrast light and heavy catalog shoppers by fashion opinion leadership, clothing interest, importance of selected clothing attributes (e.g. fiber content, garment care), and various demographic variables. To obtain information on the subject's clothing behaviour, 95 female catalog shoppers from southern United States were sent questionnaires consisting of questions from the Fashion Opinion Leadership Inventory. Responses ranged in five steps from definitely true to definitely false. Results identified two distinct market segments; light and heavy catalog shoppers. The heavy catalog users were found to have high income levels, high clothing interests, and were fashion opinion leaders. Light catalog users had low incomes, little interest in clothing and were not fashion opinion leaders. Based on these results, findings in current literature on fashion opinion leadership and retail shoppers, can be applied to catalog shoppers. Results also indicate that garment care and fiber content are variables that can assist in identifying and contrasting light and heavy catalog shoppers. These results suggest marketers should emphasize garment information in apparel catalogs directed at heavy users.

Supplementary listing of articles

Perceived fashionability of a garment as inferred from the age and body type of the wearer. Clayton, R., Lennon, S., & Larkin, J. (1987). *Home Economics Research Journal*, 15(4), 237-246.

The regional apparel mart as a service industry: Measurements of buyer perceptions. Summers, T., & Church, G. (1987). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 5(4), 7-13.

Abrasion of single filaments in an Accelerotor. Elder, H., Ellis, T., & Yahya, F. (1987). *Journal of Textile Institute*, 78(1), 72-79.

Appraisal of woven fabric performance. Ukponmwan, J. (1987). *Textile Research Journal*, 57(8), 445-462.

Store status and country of origin as information cues: Consumer's perceptions of sweater price and quality. Sternquist, B. (1986). *Home Economic Research Journal*, 15(2), 124-131.

Submitted by
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... In Ideas

Fluoride Supplementation

The rationale for fluoride supplementation in infants and children is based upon the importance of fluoride to dental health. Systemic fluoride is incorporated into the crystal structure of the enamel making the tooth resistant to decay and modifying the shape of the teeth so that fissures are more rounded and self-cleansing. Topical fluoride diffuses into the tooth's superficial layers and offers antibacterial protection as well.

The combination of systemic incorporation into developing teeth through fluoridated water plus topical application on erupted teeth through the use of fluoridated toothpaste results in the greatest caries reduction.

In-Touch, a quarterly publication of The Infant Nutrition Institute, reported that the Canadian Paediatric Society Nutrition Committee has released an updated statement on fluoride supplementation. Where drinking water contains <0.7 ppm fluoride, the guidelines recommend fluoride supplements in the form of drops for infants 0-1 year and chewable or regular tablets from one year to 13 years along with fluoridated toothpaste twice daily. Where the fluoride content is >0.7 ppm, oral fluoride supplements are not recommended but use of fluoridated toothpaste two times per day is suggested.

Generally, fluoride-vitamin preparations are not recommended but periodic topical application of fluoride by dentist and municipal water fluoridation are supported. Fluoride supplements during pregnancy are not recommended since there is little evidence to support their use.

Source: *In-Touch*, 5(4). (1987, Summer).

Effects of Sexual Abuse

Sexual abuse is not a new phenomenon but "as a society we are finally saying that adults don't have the right to do this" suggests Prof. Donna Lero of the College of Family and Consumer Studies, University of Guelph.

According to a national survey published in 1984, *Report of the Committee on Sexual Offences Against Children and Youths*, 9 per cent of boys and 22 per cent of girls under the age of 17 are subjected to sexual assault. More than 95 per cent of the sexual abuse incidents involve a male adult and 74 per cent of those are within a caretaking relationship with the child.

Sexual abuse became a major issue in the early 1980s during which time the number of verified cases of sexual abuse recorded by the Ontario Child Abuse Register rose from 330 in 1982 to 1,547 in 1985, representing an increase of close to 500 per cent.

In a 1984 survey, Lero found that 48 percent of the 600 teachers responding had at some point suspected that one of their students was being abused. The first incidence of sexual abuse occurs prior to the age of 13 and although some children manage to emerge psychologically unscathed, many suffer trauma and severe long-term effects. The effects may range from insomnia and inattentiveness to self-destructiveness and withdrawal.

Prof. Judy Myers Avis, a family therapist and professor, states that "many people who have been sexually abused as children have difficulty establishing intimate sexual relationships in adult life."

Treatment programs involve working with the victim, offender and spouse through three levels of therapy: individual, peer, and family. However, programs are often hampered due to a lack of funding. Myers Avis suggests that what is needed is a community consciousness of the need for treatment and prevention programs and support for such programs at a political level.

Source: *Facs Sheets*. (1987, May). College of Family and Consumer Studies, University of Guelph.

Unemployment Myths

Claude Forget, head of the recent Commission of Inquiry on Unemployment Insurance has stated that poor analysis of the unemployment problem threatens to lead policy makers astray in prescribing solutions. He suggests that careful analysis of the unemployment patterns should help identify the root of the problem. Consequently, instead of increasing insurance benefits, funds could be directed to correcting the cause of the unemployment.

The assumption that unemployment is a problem of the lower-income groups is also questioned since in approximately eight per cent of the families with the top one per cent of income, at least one family member experienced unemployment in 1981.

In recent years, Canadians have been led to believe that the relatively high unemployment resulted from a significant deterioration of Canada's employment prospects. Forget states that there has been a healthy growth in the job market. About 60 per cent of Canadians held jobs in 1986, about a half a percentage point off the highest employment ratio on record which occurred in 1981.

Source: *Debunking Unemployment Myths*. (1987). *Au Courant*, 8(1): 10.

... In Trends

Tanning Salons

The Consumers' Association of Canada has called for tougher regulations on commercial tanning facilities. Belegates of CAC's 40th annual meeting voted in favor of a

resolution urging Health and Welfare Canada to require tanning facilities to be licensed and inspected under the Radiation Emitting Devices Act.

It has been recommended that the Act should be amended to specify that protective eye goggles should be worn by customers since permanent eye damage can result from over-exposure to ultra violet rays and to regulate the types of bulbs used in the equipment since one type of bulb is known to contribute to skin cancer.

The Association would also like to see improved training of equipment operators and mandatory screening of customers by operators.

Source: News Release. (1987, June 24). Consumers' Association of Canada, Box 9300, Ottawa, Ontario K1G 3T9. (613) 733-9450.

Regulating the Term "Light"

The Consumers' Association of Canada has been concerned with the use of the term light on food labels since consumers may be misled into thinking foods are calorie-reduced when they may have a lighter flavor, texture or color.

New guidelines were introduced in June by Consumer and Corporate Affairs Canada that restrict the use of the word light on food labels. The new Guide for Food Manufacturers and Advertisers states that food labelled light or any other phonetic version of the word must be either calorie-reduced or clearly described what aspect of the food has been lightened.

Source: *The Watchdog*. (1987, Summer).

Meat is Back

The meat industry is continuing to direct more attention to the product, the marketplace, product development, and merchandising. This new mood is mainly due to the message that meat is leaner, lower in fat and cholesterol, and an important part of a balanced diet and the fact that merchandising is taking on new directions to meet demographic shifts and lifestyle changes.

In response to these new developments, at least two meat processors have marketed branded fresh meats using new packaging techniques with extended shelf-life. Other changes in retailing include pre-cut beef and pork strips for stir fries, ready-made kabobs, closer trim policies, and smaller cuts. Meat processors have also introduced calorie-reduced products and salt-reduced products.

The industry should be continuing to make changes in response to market demands since consumers are prepared to pay for value and convenience.

Source: Campbell, L.M. (1987, Summer). New Mood as Meat Bounces Back. *Meat Probe*, 4(3).

... In Publications

Moving and Growing — Fives and Sixes

Fitness Canada and the Canadian Institute of Child Health has released the publication *Moving and Growing: Exercises and Activities for Fives and Sixes*, the third in the *Moving and Growing* series. This 68-page illustrated booklet outlines

characteristics, needs, and motor development abilities of children in this age group with suggested activities and games.

To order: Copies are available in English and French for \$3.00 each or \$2.50 for orders of 10 or more from Canadian Institute of Child Health, 17 York Street, Suite 105, Ottawa, Ontario K1N 5S7. Orders must be prepaid or accompanied by an official purchase order.

Nutrition for Active People

Barons-Eureka-Warner Health Unit in Alberta has produced a resource package containing a series of 12 fact sheets for adolescent or adult athletes. The fact sheets cover a wide range of topics including nutrition basics, recommendations for training and high carbohydrate diets, importance of water, guidelines for losing or gaining weight, and special advice for female athletes. Coaches, physical education teachers and parents of athletes will find *NutriSport* useful.

To order: Contact Brenda White, Community Health Nutritionist, Barons-Eureka-Warner Health Unit, Box 1000, Coaldale, Alberta T0K 0L0. Cost: \$5.00.

Preparing to Marry

Omega films has announced that it is the Canadian Distributor for the new video course *Learning to Live Together* designed and written by Edward Bader and Anne Rimmel.

The video covering eight topics including communication, family background, handling money, sexuality, sharing feelings, changing roles, building a better relationship, and parenting, is designed to be used to enhance pre and post marriage courses with large groups or individual couples.

For more information: Write Omega Films, 70 Milner Avenue, Unit 5A, Scarborough, Ontario M1S 3P8. (416) 291-4733 or (416) 291-9776. Preview program available.

Curriculum Planning

The journal *Modus* of the National Association of Teachers of Home Economics (NATHE) in Great Britain has published an aid to curriculum planning called *Pupil Centred Learning*. This booklet contains a series of articles including Creating a Framework, The Scientific Approach, Developing Skills and Active Learning in Child Development.

For more information: Contact Margaret Yorke, President, National Association of Teachers of Home Economics Ltd., Hamilton House, Mabledon Place, London, England WC1H9BJ.

Feeding Your Child

I'm Hungry! Your Guide to Nutritious and Tasty Food for Young Children by Eleanor Brownridge offers a common-sense approach to feeding your child (newborn to preschool) with practical solutions and compromises that work.

The author has covered a wide range of issues including breastfeeding, baby food choices, feeding relationships, healthy snacks, food intolerances, allergies, grazing, vegetarianism, and feeding the disabled child. Included are specially developed easy-to-prepare recipes for busy families.

Although written primarily for parents, *I'm Hungry* will be useful to nutrition and parenting educators as well.

To order: HEALTH, P.O. Box 3535, London, Ontario N6A 4L4. Cost: \$12.95 plus \$2.00 postage and handling. (Prepaid) Also available in bookstores across Canada — A Random House of Canada publication.

Video on Infant Feeding

A free loan video is now available dealing with infant feeding from birth to the toddler phase. *Nutrition and Your Baby*, a 28-minute video developed by the Advisory Council of the Infant Nutrition Institute, would be useful for prenatal and parenting classes.

Heinz Baby Foods is making the video available on a free-loan or purchase basis in VHS or Beta format. (Call 1-800-268-6641 or in Toronto 226-5757).

Directory of Day Care Organizations

The Canadian Child Day Care Federation has completed a directory of day care organizations in Canada including national, provincial, and local organizations and all institutions offering programs in early childhood education. *A Canadian Directory of Child Day Care Organizations* provided an information and communication tool never before available.

To order: CCDCF/FCSGE, 500-120 Holland, Ottawa, Ontario K1Y 0X6. Cost: \$12.00 including postage and handling. Orders must be accompanied by a cheque or money order made payable to CCDCF or FCSGE.

Shop-at-Your-Desk Service

Cardinal Kitchens now has a service called *Resource Selections* allowing you to order from a wide selection of recipe and food books. The *Cardinal's Handbook of Recipe Development* is available exclusively through this listing.

For new listing: Write to Cardinal Kitchens, A Division of Cardinal Biologicals Ltd., 43 Railside Road, Don Mills, Ontario M3A 3L9. (416) 447-9126.

Food and Drugs Act Explained

Health and Welfare Canada has released a publication to explain the major aspects of the Food and Drugs Act and Regulations. Based upon the October 1985 guidelines, this edition covers topics such as food safety and quality legislation, food labelling and advertising, food standards, recommended nutrient intakes, regulations covering food additives and the organization of the Health Protection Branch of Health and Welfare Canada.

Health Protection and Food Laws would be a useful guide for nutritionists, dietitians, home economists, public health officials and members of the food industry.

To order: Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0S9. Catalogue No. H44-31-1986E. Cost: \$5.00 (Canada). \$6.00 (Outside Canada).

The Post-Secondary Student

A Profile of Post-Secondary Students in Canada is a 74 page report on the National Post-Secondary Student Survey carried out in 1983-84.

The 1987 report highlights some of the main characteristics of the Canadian post-secondary student population under the categories of educational profile, family background and financial situation.

A companion report is also available upon request providing similar data for each province individually.

For further information: Canadian Government Publishing Centre, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0S9. Catalogue No. S2-179/1987.

... In Products

Plastic Storage Lids

Bernardin of Canada has marketed a plastic storage lid that fits all standard sized mason jars and some commercial food jars. They are useful for making freezer jams that do not have to be processed and for storing opened jars of preserves in the refrigerator.

For more information: Write Bernardin of Canada, Ltd., 120 The East Mall, Toronto, Ontario M8Z 5V5. (416) 239-7723.

Calcium and Iron Supplements

Lederle Pharmaceuticals has announced that Caltrate 600 plus Iron is now available for women who need dietary supplementary of calcium and iron. The tablet contains 600mg of elemental calcium with 7.5mg of iron. It is suggested that although available over the counter, a physician should be consulted before taking any supplement.

Source: News Release. (1987, September). Lederle Pharmaceuticals.

Aspartame — The Debate Continues

Results of a recent study carried out at the University of Illinois College of Medicine Showed no link between consumption of high doses of aspartame and seizures.

In another study carried out at Life Science Research Ltd. in Suffolk, England, no adverse effects were found when pregnant mice were given large doses of the low calorie sweetener while the development of the visual system of the offspring was occurring. The researchers concluded that they could not verify earlier findings that aspartame caused temporary visual problems.

Source: News Release. (1987, September). The NutraSweet Company, Suite 860, Two Robert Speck Parkway, Mississauga, Ontario L4Z 1H8. (416) 896-1050.

Hot Dogs Tested

The Consumers' Association of Canada recently tested 13 brands of weiners and found that "they are far from being a nutritionist's dream." Tests showed that hot dogs are high in fat and sodium and low in protein. It was also determined that weiners contain meat and meat by-products which can include blood, organ meats, and bits of bone, tendons, nerves, blood vessels, fat and skin that are missed by mechanical deboning.

The 13 brands were rated according to cost, nutrient value, and taste.

Source: Hibler, Michelle. (1987, July). Winers. *Canadian Consumer*, 17(7): 15-19.

New Mayonnaise Product

Best Foods Canada is the first manufacturer to introduce a line of flavored mayonnaise to the Canadian market. Hellman's flavored mayonnaise available in cucumber, mustard and garlic flavors are meant to be used on sandwiches, as dips, and salad dressings or in recipes.

Source: News Release. (1987, September). Hellman's/Best Foods.



Connie Mammarella

On the Job

Profile of Home Economist in Fashion Merchandising

Connie Mammarella

Fashion is always associated with glamour and excitement. A world of designers, models, fashion shows, and expensive clothes. Something quite illusive. When I am asked my profession and reply simply, co-owner of a boutique, people remark with that expression of mystery. The one that says I'm living a glamorous life. They couldn't be more mistaken.

Being a fashion merchandiser requires much dedication, willingness to persevere, imagination, acceptance of constant change, and sound business judgement.

'Boutique' comes from the French word shop and is associated with few of a kind items. "Raffinée" which in French means refined, is the highest compliment one can pay a woman in France.

This is how Raffinée began three years ago. Much planning, anticipation, and hardwork went into our enterprise. It started off with an idea, a name which painted an image to the public. Along with the name, an ambiance was created to make our

customers feel comfortable and relaxed. An atmosphere where a rapport could be built.

Raffinée is not an ordinary boutique. It caters to a specialized clientele; the fashion forward of the community. These people are the fashion leaders and are looking not only for quality, but for the unusual. We personally shop for our clients while on buying trips in Milan, Florence, New York, and Toronto. This is very difficult, demanding, and draining work. As a merchandiser, the right product at the right place at the right time is what it is all about. It is common practice for us to call our clients when our merchandise arrives. In high fashion boutiques such as Raffinée personalized service is one of the most important aspects of our business. We keep in touch with our customers needs and wants. From the time we search for and buy the merchandise, to the time we fit and alter the garment to perfection, there is constant communication with our client.

Co-owning this boutique three years later has been forever a challenging, changing and growing experience. I would not want to be doing anything else. If it were not for my strong academic roots I would have not been able to approach this career head on as I did. Without my home economics background I would have lacked the education and knowledge necessary to understand the properties of fibres,

which include their resiliency and care. Recognizing and understanding textiles is essential when buying as well as selling and relaying this information to one's customer. Understanding the principles and theory of the construction and design of clothing as well as the practical skills of changing and altering clothing, has made me more knowledgeable in this area which has given me an edge on the competition. Comprehending the concepts of merchandising and retail management as well as the administrative skills, has given me a well rounded education. This, along with my willingness to learn and work and my genuine interest in people have made me a confident and knowledgeable entrepreneur.

Unlike working for a large company and being assigned a job title, owning one's own specialty shop means doing *everything* and *anything* that needs to be done, whether it be buying, selling, altering, displaying, advertising, or public relations to name a few. The list is endless. The hours are long. The pressures are great. So why wouldn't I want to be doing anything else? It's dynamic and challenging. Your mind never has a chance to get stale because fashion is always changing. □

Connie Mammarella received a BA with a major in clothing and textiles from the University of Windsor. She also holds a MA degree in clothing and textiles from Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan. Connie is a co-owner of "Raffinée", a woman's high fashion boutique, in Windsor, Ontario.

What do you say when ...?

What Do You Say When . . . You are questioned about food irradiation?

Michelle Marcotte

Even though food processing is not usually a subject covered by the media or of interest to politicians, food irradiation has gathered considerable coverage and political interest. Journalists and politicians anxious to listen to both sides of what appears to be a contentious issue, and unable to evaluate the validity of the information presented to them, write about food irradiation as if there were two sets of facts. While opinions may vary about the need for labelling or the desirability of processing foods at all versus a "whole" food or "health" food option, the facts about food irradiation are clear.

Food irradiation is a safe process, resulting in wholesome, nutritious food and offering clear benefits to both the food processing industry and consumers.

What are the Benefits of Food Irradiation?

Irradiated root crops such as potatoes and onions will emerge from months of storage fresh-looking, unsprouted, and free from sprout inhibiting chemical sprays that are now being used. Irradiated strawberries will stay fresh in the refrigerator much longer than they normally do because the molds that spoil them will not grow. Since irradiation extends the shelf-life of many fruits and vegetables, it will make a larger selection of fresh produce available year round.

In addition to extending shelf-life, irradiation can eliminate insects in fresh produce. The post-harvest chemicals that are now being used to disinfest fresh fruits and vegetables could be eliminated or reduced.

And, perhaps of greatest immediate importance is the unique ability of irradiation to eliminate pathogens in fresh packed poultry. Poultry meat is the largest source of salmonella contamination in North America. Estimates of deaths, illness, and economic losses resulting from salmonellosis annually in Canada are significant. Monthly reports by meat inspection officials identify incidence of contamination ranging from 30% to 70% in store-bought fresh poultry.

Michelle Marcotte, BA (Hons.) in Foods and Nutrition, is presently employed as a market Development Specialist with Atomic Energy of Canada, Ltd. Her previous work experience focused on marketing communication, media relations, and food marketing. Michelle graduated from the University of Windsor in 1977.

Another application of particular interest to nutrition professionals is the use of radiation sterilized food for immune deficient patients (Aker, 1984).

How Safe are Irradiated Foods?

Just as airport luggage x-rays do not make your hand luggage radioactive, neither does the irradiation of food make food radioactive.

Food irradiation has been subjected to more scientific scrutiny than any other food process. Extensive toxicologic, chemical, and nutritional testing has been conducted since the early 1950s. The scientific data were reviewed by four Joint International Expert Committees on Food Irradiation (groups of international experts sponsored by the World Health Organization (WHO), Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEC). In 1981, the final expert committee reached the conclusion that irradiation of any commodity up to an overall average level of 10 kilograys (kGy) presented no toxicological hazard (WHO, 1981). It also concluded that the irradiation of food up to this level introduced no special nutritional or microbiological problems. In 1984, the Codex Alimentarius Commission of the United Nations published recommended standards and a code of practice for food irradiation (Codex, 1984).

In Canada, Health and Welfare Canada and Consumer and Corporate Affairs Canada are reviewing existing food irradiation legislation to conform to the Codex recommendations.

What is the Nutritional Value of Irradiated Foods?

In general, the effect of irradiation on food ranges from no measurable effect through to effects that are no worse, and in most cases better than, the effects of conventional food processes (i.e. heating or freezing). The WHO/FAO/IAEA expert committee concluded that food irradiation introduces no special nutritional problems.

The Food and Drug Administration of the United States concluded in its April 1986 food irradiation regulation that at the low doses (less than 1 kGy) required for insect disinfestation, sprout inhibition, and shelf-life extension of

fresh fruits and vegetables, there are no nutritional differences between unirradiated food and irradiated food (FDA, 1986).

At medium doses (2-10 kGy) required for destruction of spoilage and specific disease causing micro-organisms, for example salmonella in poultry, the loss of nutrients is in general, less than the nutrient loss from freezing (Josephson, 1978).

Even at the high levels required for sterilization, the nutrient losses are less than those that result from other sterilizing heat treatments.

The Council for Agricultural Science and Technology gave an overview of the literature on the effect of irradiation on nutrients (CAST, 1986).

As with other food processing techniques, the changes in both the macro and micro nutrients may be reduced by irradiating foods at low temperatures or under a vacuum or by the use of packaging that excludes light or oxygen and by using the lowest energy dose needed for processing the food.

Is Irradiated Food Being Served Anywhere Today?

Food is being irradiated on a commercial scale in several countries. Dried vegetables, spices, egg powder, frogs legs, and shrimp are being irradiated in the Netherlands. Approximately 20,000 tons of potatoes have been irradiated annually in Japan since 1973. Onions are being irradiated in Hungary. Spices are irradiated in Belgium, Israel, and U.S.A. Strawberries, mushrooms, asparagus, bananas, mangoes, spices, tea, and dry ingredients are irradiated in South Africa. Wheat flakes, dried vegetables, spices, and deboned poultry are irradiated in France. Wheat is irradiated in Russia.

Is Irradiated Food Being Sold In Canada?

Irradiated food is not yet being sold on a commercial basis. In other countries the experience has been that good and coordinated public education, combined with a "product-at-a-time" introduction over several years, are the keys to consumer acceptance. This process is just beginning in

Canada, and market tests are an essential tool to understanding consumer response and attitudes. This deliberate approach also provides food science and nutrition professionals with time to inform and educate their clients.

Very little accurate information on food irradiation has been available to consumers. Media reports while scarce, usually present the emotional and often wildly inaccurate information released by activists opposed to food irradiation, the nuclear industry, and food processing technology in general.

Even though food and health professionals are often used by the media as information sources for food and nutrition issues, they are not being used as media sources for information on food irradiation (Weaver and Marcotte, 1987). □

References

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- Codex Alimentarius Commission. (1984). Codex general standard for irradiated foods and recommended international code of practice for the operation of radiation facilities used for treatment of foods, Volume XV.
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- Weaver, V., and Marcotte, M. (1987). Food Irradiation and consumer education — The role of food and health professionals. Presented to the 6th International Meeting on Radiation Processing, Ottawa. (available upon request from the author).
- World Health Organization. (1981). Wholesomeness of irradiated food. Report of a Joint FAO/IAEA/WHO Expert Committee. Technical Report 659.

Note from editor: For further information readers may wish to review the following article:

Singh, H. (1987). Prevention of food spoilage by radiation processing. *Canadian Home Economics Journal*, Volume 37.

Guide for Authors

Canadian Home Economics Journal

Contributions to the Journal

The *Journal* welcomes articles from home economists and others who share their interest in promoting the well-being of individuals and families. Papers related to social issues affecting the home economics profession and professional practice, or providing information about professional subject fields are of particular interest. Themes and submission deadlines are printed periodically in the *Journal*. Authors are encouraged to submit articles related to the themes but should not feel bound by this directive.

Depending on the nature of the paper, authors may make their submissions to either the general interest articles or to the research (refereed) section.

Contributions that will be considered for inclusion in the research section are: reports about empirical research, review papers related to topics of current interest, research notes on particular issues, or theoretical forums related to theory development in an area of interest to home economists.

Manuscripts in English and/or French are welcome. Submission of a paper to the *Journal* implies that the paper is original and has not been published or currently submitted for publication elsewhere. If copyright material is used, it is the responsibility of the author to give appropriate credit and to obtain permission for reproduction. The original copy of the written permission must accompany the submission. Manuscripts not conforming to the stated guidelines will be returned to the author(s) without consideration.

Manuscripts accepted for publication, are edited to ensure conformity to *Journal* standards. If extensive editing is required the author(s) will be consulted.

Authors are asked to transfer copyright to the Canadian Home Economics Association by signing a Copyright and Licence-to-Use form. This process facilitates arrangements with indexing and abstracting services, and protects the rights of the author and the publisher.

Disponible en français auprès de la rédactrice

Criteria for Acceptance

Research (Refereed) Section

The goal of this section of the *Journal* is to provide researchers concerned with the well-being of families and individuals an opportunity to publish in a refereed Canadian journal. An author's submission of a research paper implies that the paper is based on original research and not published elsewhere. All articles are submitted for external review. The criteria used include:

- Focus on a significant problem in home economics.
- Scholarly report of new knowledge, confirmation or refinement of known facts, presentation of a critical review of literature, development of a theoretical framework, etc.
- Logical interpretation of data.
- In the case of empirical research, evidence of sound research methodology in the conduct of the research.
- Well organized and written in a scholarly style.
- Form and length which makes publishing feasible.
- Length limited to 2,000 to 3,000 words excluding references which may be as extensive as required.

General Interest Articles/ Letters to the Editor (Reader Forum)

All manuscripts are read by the editors and many are submitted to external reviewers. Criteria for acceptance include:

- Content that is original, addresses current topics, provides fresh insights, or new information.
- Clear, concise, logical presentation that will appeal to a constituent group of CHEA.
- Appropriate documentation of sources and conformity to the style guides adopted for the *Journal*.
- Manuscripts for articles limited to 1,500 to 2,500 words and letters to the editor to 300 words.

Preparation of the Manuscript

References for style, format, and spelling are:

- American Psychological Association. (1983). *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed.). Washington, DC: Author.
- Strunk, W., Jr., & White, E.B. (1979). *The Elements of Style* (3rd ed.). New York: Macmillan.
- *Gage Canadian Dictionary*

The submission should include the following sections: title page, abstract, text of the manuscript, references, tables (one per page), figures and other graphics (one per page), titles for figures and graphics (on a separate page), acknowledgements (on a separate page).

In preparing the manuscript adherence to the following details will speed consideration of the manuscript.

Title Page

Because papers are or may be submitted anonymously to reviewers, the following information should appear only on the title page:

- Title of paper—be concise.
- A short biography, including as a minimum, name and present position of author(s); degrees held (including granting institution).
- For research papers, give the institution at which research was conducted and date of execution.
- Name, phone number, and address of author to whom correspondence about the paper should be addressed.

Abstract

The abstract page follows the title page and starts with the complete title of the paper but does not contain the name(s) of the author(s). It should be:

- A concise summary of not more than 150 words that stands on its own.
- Submitted in both English and French. (If the abstract is submitted in only one language, arrangements for translation will be made by the editors).

Text of the Manuscript

The author is fully responsible for correct sentence structure, good English/French, and accurate spelling. In order to ensure that the paper will be understandable to all readers, it should contain a minimum of specialized language.

Style, organization, and format. Scholarly presentation of the material is the responsibility of the author(s). Organize material in a logical sequence, incorporate sub-headings, and, in the case of research or theoretical articles, give enough details of techniques so that other readers can clearly understand the author's ideas or execution of the research. Avoid repetition of ideas in the paper.

- Begin the text of the manuscript on a separate page with at least a 3-cm margin on all sides.
- Number each page on the top right-hand corner.
- Number the lines of type on each page in the left margin.
- Type double-spaced on one side of the paper.
- Limit the length of manuscripts as indicated in the criteria for each section.

Citations. Citations in the body of the article should be by author's surname, date, and pages cited when reference is made to the work of others either by a direct or indirect quotation. The following examples illustrate the required format.

Campbell and MacFadyen (1984) cautioned . . .
Fetterman (1984) stated: "The inventory . . ." (p. 18)
Research (Buskirk, 1981; Serfass, 1982) indicates . . .

Where reference is made to an article by more than two authors, the first time it appears all names must be listed. In any further reference, use the first listed author and et al. For example:

First reference: Bob, Pringle, and Rijan (1969) reported that . . . ; in any further reference use the format: Bob et al. (1969) favor diets . . .

References

All work cited in the paper must be given in a list of references at the end of the paper. Works that are not cited should not be listed. References are typed on a separate page, double-spaced throughout, alphabetized by first author's surname with paragraph indentation used for the second and successive lines. Several references by the same author are arranged by year of publication. The following examples illustrate APA style. (Note the use of lower case in the titles.)

- **Book**
Fremes, R., & Sabry, Z. (1981). *NutriScore: The rate yourself plan for better nutrition*. Toronto: Methuen.

- **Journal article** (do not abbreviate journal names). Nostedt, E.M. (1984). Networking. *Canadian Home Economics Journal*, 34(3), 130-132.

- **Article or chapter in an edited book**
Gurman, A.S., & Kniskern, D.P. (1981). Family therapy outcome research: Knowns and unknowns. In A.S. Gurman & D.P. Kniskern (Eds.), *Handbook of family therapy* (pp. 742-775). New York: Brunner/Mazel.

- **Government report**
Bureau of Nutrition Research. (1983). *Recommended nutrient intakes for Canadians* (4th ed.). Ottawa: Health and Welfare Canada.

Tables

Tables should be kept to a minimum and used only when they add value to the paper. Type each table on a separate page, double-spaced with the complete title at the top of the sheet. Limit the number of characters across the table 40, 60 or 87, and organize the table to make efficient use of the space. Give each table a number and refer to it by that number in the text. Indicate the location of tables as follows:

(Insert Table 1)

There should be no vertical or horizontal lines except those in the heading and at the bottom of the table.

Figures

Figures, including graphs, pictures, line drawings, and flow charts should be included if they will improve clarity, add reader appeal, and are discussed in the text. Graphs and line drawings must be professionally prepared (one per page) in India ink with a mechanical lettering device. The original art work (or a glossy photograph of the original) must be submitted for publication. Authors should note that the use of a typewriter to produce the lettering is *not* acceptable.

Each item should have a clear heading and be numbered (e.g., Figure 1). Placement in the text should be indicated on the manuscript.

Photographs, when submitted, should be good clear prints. Do not write on the front or back and do not attach them to other materials with paper clips or staples. Attach a sheet that includes the caption to the back of the picture with tape.

In preparing graphics it is good practice to prepare them twice the size that will be shown in the text. Lettering should be done using 12- or 14-point characters. Remember that they must then be reduced to fit within the dimensions of the column or page. The finished width in the *Journal* will be 55, 85, or 180 mm.

Additional Information

Authors should consult the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (3rd ed.) for complete information.

Review Process

Research Refereed Section

Copies of research papers will be sent to two or more qualified referees. Within six weeks the author should receive a summary of the referees' decisions, comments, and suggestions. Referees may recommend acceptance, minor changes, major revisions, or rejection of the paper. If the author agrees with the reviewers' comments, a second draft, incorporating suggested changes should be prepared. If the author does not agree with the suggested changes, justification for that stand may be provided. The paper will be published as soon as possible after it is accepted. Copyright and licence-to-use forms are sent when the paper is accepted.

General Interest Articles

All manuscripts are read by the editors and many are submitted to external reviewers. Authors should receive a report on the acceptability of the paper within four to six weeks.

Submission Information

Four copies of papers intended for the research (refereed) section should be submitted to:

Dr. Phyllis J. Johnson, Research Editor
Canadian Home Economics Journal
University of British Columbia
School of Family & Nutritional Sciences
2205 East Mall
Vancouver, BC, V6T 1W5

Three copies of a manuscript intended for the general interest sections should be submitted to:

Nancy Scrutton
Box 74A, R.R. #4
Amherstburg, Ontario
N9V 2Y9

All manuscripts are acknowledged as soon as they are received.

Informations pour la soumissions des textes

Pour ce qui est de la section des articles d'intérêt général, **trois** copies du texte proposé doivent être expédiées à:

Marie Barrette
2110, rue de l'Eglise
Saint-Laurent, PQ H4M 1G4

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Compilation of master's theses and doctoral dissertations in home economics and related areas completed July 1, 1986 to June 30, 1987.

Une compilation de mémoires et de thèses en économie familiale et en des domaines affiliés complétées entre le 1^{er} juillet, 1986, et le 30 juin, 1987.

Consumer studies

- Ho, K. (1987). *Consumers' household characteristics and their response to time-of-use electricity pricing: A study of Ontario residents*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, W. Frisbee)
- Stafford Smith, Betty. (1987). *An investigation of consumer knowledge, attitudes, and behavior of Quebec English CEGEP students as a basis for consumer education curriculum development*. Unpublished doctoral thesis. McGill University, Quebec. (Advisors, S. Weber and M. Mackey)
- Walker, L.B. (1986). *The influence of attribute importance and variability on consumer use of point-of-purchase information*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, J. Liefeld)

Family studies

- Ballantyne, J.A. (1986). *Work roles and the mental health of farm wives*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, N. Keating)
- Clouthier, K. (1986). *Father involvement: The influence of family of origin and marital relationship*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, M. McKim)
- Deby, K.J. (1986). *The influence of stressors, gender-role, and social support on depression in married working women*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, D. Kieren)
- Dickinson, L. (1986). *Elderly widows and widowers: Patterns of social support*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, A. Martin Matthews)
- Fewer, W.R. (1987). *The process of preparing psychologically for fatherhood*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, J. Montgomery)
- Gilewich, G.B. (1987). *A theoretical model of long term care and caregiver burden*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, J. Montgomery)

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- Harris, M. (1986). *Decision-making and help-seeking of Winnipeg widows*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Advisor, C. Harvey)
- Hildebrand, E. (1986). *Adult children as caregivers to elderly parents: A Mennonite explanation*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Advisor, J.B. Bond)
- Kirkconnell, R. (1986). *The impact of institutionalization among a sample of institutionalized elderly person*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, J. Tindale)
- Kustra, L.M. (1986). *The relationship between work status, gender, family roles and self-esteem*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, N. Hurlbut)
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- Matthews, N. (1986). *The effect of extended exploration on competence during mastery motivation session among 18-month-old children*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Advisor, L. Brockman)
- McCalla, K.L. (1987). *Needs and strengths of parents of educable mentally handicapped children*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, D. Kieren)
- McNaughton, S.J. (1987). *Becoming a stepfather in the period before marriage*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, D. Kieren)
- Minda, R. (1986). *The formation and dissolution of intimate relationships*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Advisor, N. Kingsbury)
- Noble, K. (1986). *Spiritual well-being and loneliness in the elderly*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, J. Norris)
- Norris, J.R. (1986). *The experience of mothers consenting for daughter's abortions*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, F. Morrison)
- Njue, J.R. (1987). *Coping strategies of infertile Kenyan couples*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Advisor, J. Montgomery)

- Poon, J.E. (1987). *Work experience and family cohesion: Its relationship to adolescent identity status*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser, N. Hurlbut)
- Schilke, R. (1986). *Sexual health service delivery within family service agencies*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, C. Guldner)
- Sturdy, C. (1986). *The social organization of health care provision to elderly persons in Ontario*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, J. Tindale)
- Turner, J. (1986). *A demonstration project using volunteers in a day care setting to provide health education*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser, N. Kingsbury)
- Valeriotte, S. (1986). *Marriage and parenting: An evaluation of the impact of a film-discussion group program on attitude*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, M. Fine)
- White, Sarah (1986). *Guidance councillors' attributions for students' school performance*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Guelph, Guelph. (Advisor, B. Ryan)
- Food/nutrition**
- Akomas, O. (1987). *A study of gossypol: Measurement and reduction in cottonseed*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser, N.A.M. Eskin)
- Atkins, J.S. (1987). *Carnitine dependent fatty acid transport*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Alberta, Edmonton. (Adviser, J. Clandinin)
- Austen, V. (1987). *The effect of jejunal ileal bypass on taste response*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser, V. Bruce)
- Blackburn, Hélène (1986). *Effets d'un régime hyperglucidique et d'un régime hypocalorique sur la teneur en amines biogènes de l'hypothalamus et du tronc cérébral de rat*. Thèse de maîtrise non publiée. Université Laval, Québec. (Directeur, Andrée G. Roberge)
- Boyd, K. (1987). *Effects of trichothecenes, DON and T-2 toxin on brain biogenic monoamines in rats and chicks*. Unpublished master's thesis. University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. (Adviser, D. Fitzpatrick)
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